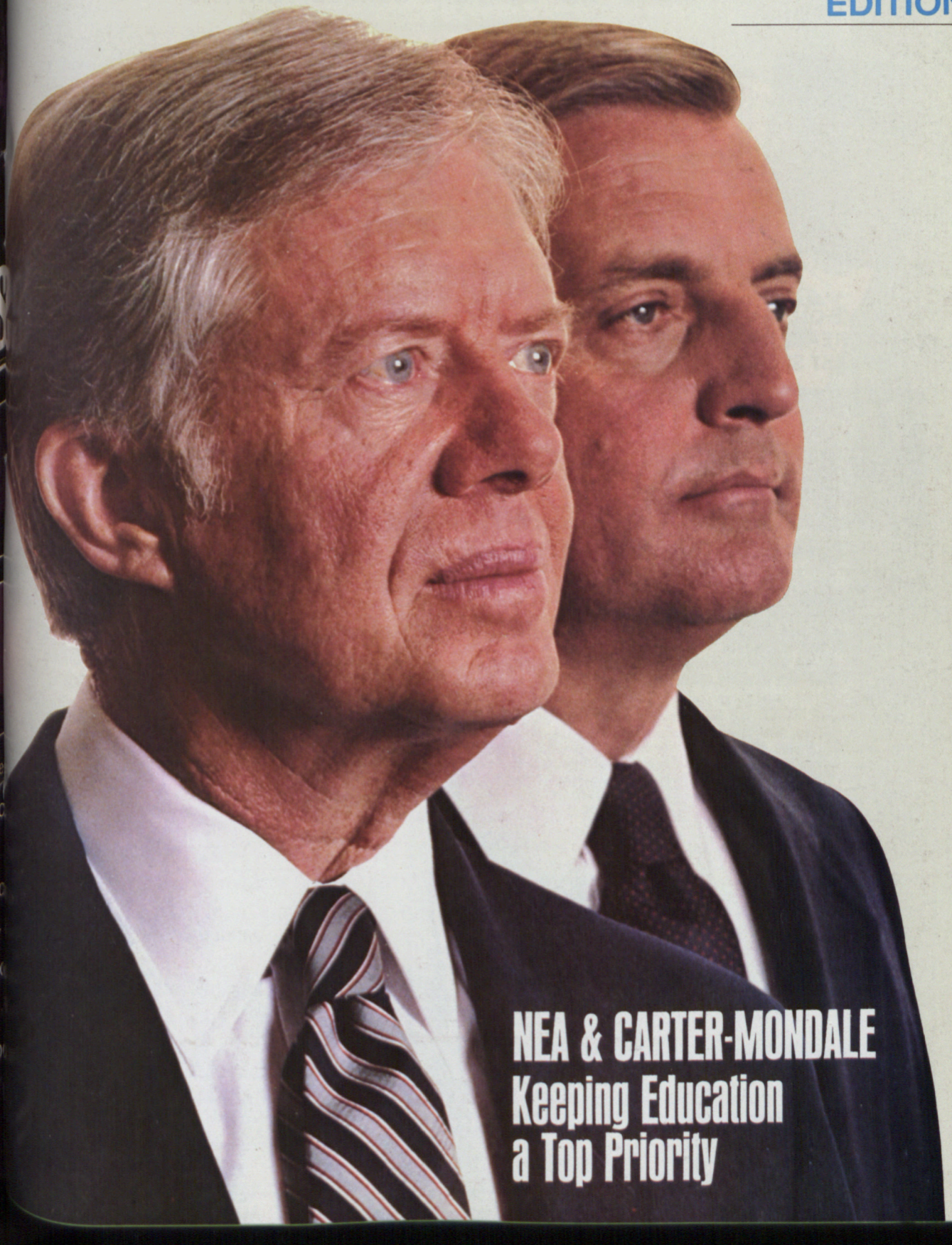
TODAY'S EDUCATION

Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

November-December 1980

GENERAL EDITION



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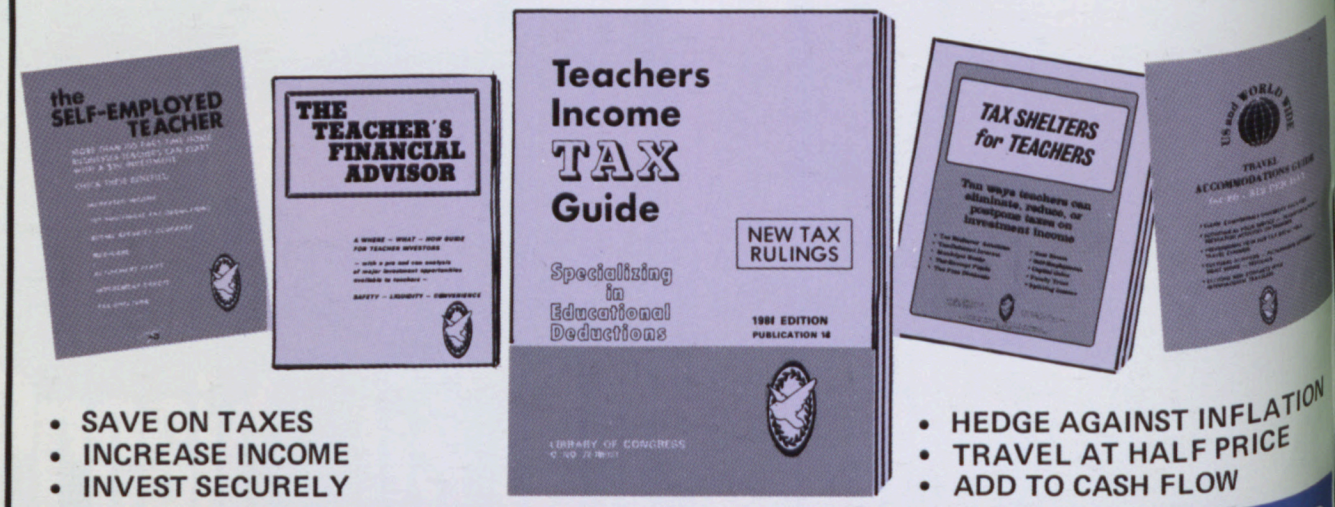

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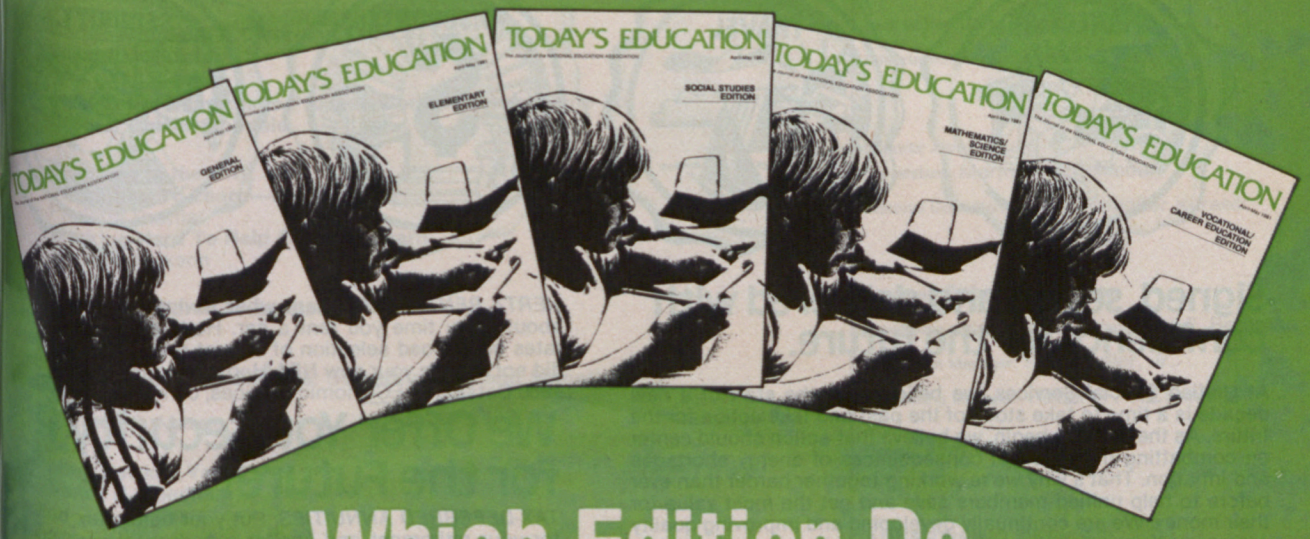

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Published four times a year in September-October, November-December, February-March, and April-May by the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Telephone: Area Code 202, 833-4000. TODAY'S EDUCATION® (ISSN 0040-8484) goes to all members of the Association. Annual subscription price $1.75 (included in membership). Single copies $2 each. Second-class postage paid at Washington, DC, and at additional mailing offices.

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Trends

Divorce Rate Rises Again, Affects More Children

In 1978 the divorce rate (number of divorces per 1,000 population), which had stabilized after a continual climb between 1963 and 1976, rose to 5.2—4 percent above the 1977 level—according to the National Center for Health Statistics. Provisional data for 1979 indicate a further rise in the divorce rate of 2 percent since 1978.

The total number of children involved in divorce in 1978 was estimated to be more than 1.1 million, a 4.7 percent increase over the 1977 total. The number of children involved in divorce in relation to the total number of children under 18 years old was 18.1 per 1,000—more than twice the 1965 rate and nearly three times the 1955 rate.

About Two-Thirds of Faculty Hold Tenure

Among full-time faculty members at public four-year colleges and universities in 1978-79, 69 percent were tenured and another 23 percent were in tenure-track positions, according to a survey by the Higher Education Panel of the American Council on Education. In private four-year institutions, 63 percent of the full-time faculty members were tenured and another 32 percent were in tenure-track positions. The survey of 1,200 four-year colleges and universities found more than 222,000 full-time faculty members in the physical sciences, engineering, mathematical sciences, life sciences, social sciences, humanities, and education.

Of the 12,400 faculty members considered for tenure in 1978-79, 58 percent were awarded tenure and 22 percent remained eligible for future reconsideration. The tenure approval rate was highest at private universities (74 percent) and lowest at private four-year colleges (49 percent).

Adult Share of Higher Education Enrollment Will Rise

By 1983, students over the age of 24 will constitute 40 percent of all college students; by 1988, they will make up 44 percent, says the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES).

Increases in the number of part-time students won't make up for a decrease in the number of full-time students, the report says. It predicts that enrollment will peak in 1981-82, then decrease slightly throughout the rest of the decade.

NCES also expects a decline in the number of college faculty and a continuing decline in the number of doctor's degrees awarded after 1982-83.

Female and Minority Undergraduates Earn Less Than Others

Among full-time undergraduate students who worked, women and minorities earned lower hourly wages than the average, according to a study conducted for the National Center for Education Statistics.

Almost four-fifths of all undergraduates worked—those who were financially independent of their parents for 1,400 hours a year, about twice as much as those who were dependent. These independent students also had higher hourly wages.

Among dependent students, the average hourly wages were $2.32 for men, $1.99 for women, $1.89 for Hispanics, and $1.54 for Blacks. Hispanic students worked more than 1,000 hours a year, much more than the average dependent student.

Among independent students, the average hourly wages were $2.81 for men, $2.44 for women, $2.10 for Hispanics, and $2.06 for Blacks.

Public Faith in Schools Increases

For the first time in seven years, the proportion of adults who think the public schools are doing a better-than-average job has increased, according to the latest Gallup Poll on the public schools. The public now has more confidence in the schools than in 1973.

Only the churches inspire greater confidence than the schools, which led the courts, big business, government, and labor unions.

As in the last nine years, Poll respondents ranked discipline as the leading problem facing the schools. Parents of private school students were twice as likely as parents of public school children to consider discipline the greatest problem of public schools.

International Year of Disabled Persons Comes in 1981

The NEA is one of 220 organizations acting as partners of the U.S. Council for the International Year of Disabled Persons (IYDP), proclaimed by the United Nations. The Council is cooperating with the federal government's inter-agency Committee for IYDP.

Thirty-five million Americans—1 of every 6—suffer from physical or mental disabilities. IYDP is designed to help them and their peers in other countries by improving opportunities for them in all areas of life and by improving treatment and rehabilitation for them. IYDP also is intended to reduce the incidence of disabilities through prevention of accident and disease.

Fourth Great American Smokeout Is Scheduled

Thursday, November 20, is the date of the fourth national Great American Smokeout, when the American Cancer Society (ACS) will ask smokers to go without cigarettes for a day. One to three days after last year's smokeout, says ACS, 2.3 million of the participants still weren't smoking. The cold-turkey method of quitting smoking is reported to be the most effective.

ACS estimates that smoking is a causal factor in some 325,000 premature deaths yearly.

Families with Children Suffer Housing Discrimination

Surveys on housing discrimination in Dallas, Los Angeles, Atlanta, and other areas suggest that large and increasing numbers of apartment complexes either prohibit children entirely or accept children only of certain ages or only in limited numbers, says the Children's Defense Fund.

The Annual Housing Survey of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development indicates that in 1976, 2.3 million households were overcrowded, and 11 million paid more than they could afford for housing. Vacancy rates for housing units with five or six rooms are dangerously low.

One effect of housing policies that discriminate against children is that patterns of school enrollment are disrupted, forcing the closing of some schools and overcrowding of others.

Religious Leaders Oppose School Prayer Bill

Religious leaders representing most Christians and Jews in the United States have declared that their churches and associations strongly oppose a proposed law denying the federal courts jurisdiction over school prayer controversies.

A representative of the National Council of Churches declared that no agency of the state should be entrusted with responsibility for the spiritual de-

opment of children, which he termed
task of the family and the faith com-
nity. Nine Baptist bodies with more
n 27 million members were unani-
us in opposing the bill, according to
peaker for their joint committee. A
aker for the United Methodist Board
Church and Society described gov-
ent-sponsored prayer as a contra-
on in terms—prayer is voluntary, he
tained, or it is not prayer.

rnational Year of the Child de Some Difference

e World Confederation of Organi-
ns of the Teaching Profession
d member organizations what dif-
ce the International Year of the
d (IYC) in 1979 had made. Some
ers were that—

Teachers and students had be-
e more aware of children's rights,
ding equality of opportunity.

More people had become aware of
eeds of children. For example, in
nited States, every state affiliate of
EA and hundreds of local affiliates
part in IYC, informing some 150
on people on this subject.

Understanding and cooperation
ng national organizations im-
ed.

Governments and other agencies
essed existing programs and iden-
programs that need more money.

The public became more aware of
ren's needs as opposed to the
for armaments.

ijuana Use Now Begins Earlier

e most significant increase in mari-
a use in the past year was among
to 17-year-olds, says the National
tute on Drug Abuse. Daily use
ng high school seniors has nearly
led since 1975, rising from 5.8 per-
to 10.7 and 10.3 percent in 1978
1979 respectively.

arijuana and Health, a report on the
e and effects of the drug, is avail-
from the National Institute on Drug
se, 5600 Fishers Lane, Rockville,
20857.

assinations of El Salvador chers Increase

1979, 31 teachers were assassi-
d in El Salvador; in the first six
ths of 1980, the toll was 55. The
r teachers organization of El Sal-
r recently reported these figures to
nference of nine national teachers
nizations and the World Confeder-
of Organizations of the Teaching
ession (WCOTP). WCOTP had ap-
ed often and without response to
unta ruling El Salvador to protect
teachers and seek out their assassins.

In their "Declaration of Managua," the assembled groups called on teachers organizations throughout the world to condemn the regime controlling El Salvador and work to deny it aid, to set up national committees of solidarity with the people of El Salvador, and to support Salvadorean exiles.

Women's Colleges Are Strong and Growing

In 1978-79, the nation's 117 women's colleges (in 26 states and the District of Columbia) enrolled 123,339 students, a gain of 19.8 percent since 1970, according to the Women's College Coalition.

Freshmen at women's colleges are nearly twice as likely as freshman women at all colleges and universities to plan to become doctors, lawyers, or Ph.D.'s or to plan majors in economics, biology, or chemistry. The population at women's colleges is more ethnically diverse than the female college population in general—11.2 percent rather than 9 percent Black, 2.2 rather than 1.1 percent Asian, and 1.8 rather than 1.0 percent Hispanic.

Women comprise 55 percent of the faculty members and 43 percent of the full professors at women's colleges, and only 25 percent of the faculty members and 11 percent of the full professors at all four-year postsecondary institutions.

College Costs Now Rise at Lower Rate

The percentage of increase in costs for resident students at four-year colleges is slightly less than last year, says the College Board's College Scholarship Service. Between 1978 and 1979, total costs for students at private four-year colleges rose 10.6 percent; in 1980, the cost rise was estimated to be 10.3 percent. Analogous figures for public institutions are 8.5 and 8.1 percent respectively.

Costs at public two-year institutions rose between 16 and 20 percent, probably because the local tax base, which provides much of the support for these institutions, has not been growing rapidly.

Interscholastic Athletics: Girls' Share Improves—Somewhat

The number of women and girls participating in competitive athletics has more than doubled since passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1971, according to a report of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. The proportion of females among interscholastic athletes has grown from less than 1 in 10 in 1971 to nearly 1 in 3 in 1978-79. Women's athletic programs still do not receive a comparable share of the athletic budget, however.

Most of the growth in the number of female athletes arises from an increase in the number of schools that offer basketball and track and field to girls; these two sports are the most widely available for boys. Of 29 interscholastic sports, however, 22 are less often available for girls than for boys.

For a copy of the report, *More Hurdles To Clear: Women and Girls in Competitive Athletics*, write to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Publications Warehouse, 621 N. Payne St., Alexandria, VA 22314.

Sodium Vapor Lamps May Disturb Vision

High pressure sodium vapor lamps in classrooms may disturb vision, according to the Bureau of Radiological Health, U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Teachers and students in Fort Worth, Texas, and Cheshire, Connecticut, reported glare, color distortion, headaches, and eye strain or pain within several months after schools installed the lamps. In both communities, the complaints have caused removal of the lights.

Although the available information does not establish that the lamps caused the symptoms, the installation of such lamps in other classrooms could easily result in the same teacher and student reactions, according to the Bureau investigators.

Children's Book Week Comes in November

With the slogan "Books Alive!" Children's Book Week will be celebrated November 17-23. The Children's Book Council has prepared several kinds of materials for use during the week, including a poster, a frieze, streamers, a bookmark, and a mobile.

For more information, write the Children's Book Council, Inc., 67 Irving Place, New York 10003, or call 212/254-2666.

NEA Teachers Visit British Counterparts

Last summer, the first exchange visit took place between members of the NEA and of its British counterpart, the National Union of Teachers. For two weeks, 46 U.S. teachers lived with teachers in Bath and Bristol, taking part in seminars, discussions, and excursions. The British host teachers are to visit their U.S. guests next summer.

Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Ability Counts

A research writing contest on the subject of the problems and abilities of handicapped people is open to all high school juniors and seniors in participating states. Winners of the "Ability Counts" contest will receive prizes at both state and national levels.

To prepare their research reports, students will talk to disabled people, their teachers, and their families. They will also study the laws mandating education and a barrier-free environment for all people with handicaps.

If you wish to encourage your students to put their investigative and writing skills to work on this contest, address your request for complete information as follows: State Chairman, Governor's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, c/o State Capitol, Your State Capital.

—Juanita E. Campbell, *the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, DC.*

Saying Good Things About Teachers

Thanks to Phyllis Naylor for "Over the Dinner Table." Despite the subtitle ("What Kids Really Say About Teachers . . . You May Be Pleasantly Surprised"), I was not surprised. Rather, I was gratified, encouraged, thankful.

We who teach know that some of our students, like the Naylor boys, see us as human beings and appreciate our efforts. For them, we are grateful.

We also know that some of our students' parents—the "Ms. Naylors" out there—are cheering us on, understanding our human frailties, applauding our ofttimes infinitesimal gains. Such parents usually express their appreciation quietly but effectively by volunteering to drive on field trips, help with foreign language week festivities, assist in the library. In many such important ways, they express their support. These subtle cheerleaders help offset the grumbling and accusatory parents who are much more vocal.

I wish that articles such as Ms. Naylor's could be published not only in magazines for teachers but also in the secular press. There, they could help balance the trendy but negative statements that are often published on such topics as teacher accountability and teacher strikes. The general public needs to be reminded that schools merely reflect the society in which they exist.

—Patricia G. Lamb, *English and journalism teacher, Campbell High School, Smyrna, Georgia.*

Teachers by the thousands, more accustomed these days to criticism than to praise, well deserve the support given them by Phyllis Naylor in the September-October *Today's Education* ("Over the Dinner Table"). I venture to say that she has expressed the too often unexpressed feeling of many, many mothers and fathers.

How wonderful it would be if all parents whose children are fortunate enough to have teachers of the caliber described by this wise and warm author would *tell* those teachers that they understand their problems and are grateful for their contribution. How wonderful it would be if all teachers who aren't sure whether they measure up would resolve to earn such parent appreciation.

—Mildred Fenner Reid, *editor,* Today's Education, *1955-75.*

Hurrah for Physical Education!

Reading the interview with Janis Hill (September-October) enhanced my own sense of worth as an elementary school physical educator.

The humanistic teaching techniques that Ms. Hill employs parallel the developmental needs of children. To read about them won't surprise many PE teachers, because Ms. Hill is doing exactly what a majority of other elementary physical educators are doing across the country.

As president-elect of the Kansas Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, and Dance, in affiliation with the National Alliance, I have talked with hundreds of PE educators nationwide, and their work with children gives me every reason for pride and optimism.

Now we physical educators must educate parents and the public in general (including other educators) on the serious merits of PE. Many of today's adults did not experience a sound physical education program when they were students, and most do not understand the positive changes that have occurred in our profession in the last 15 years.

Indeed, PE has changed, and we teachers must now persuade school administrators that physical education is basic education which they should regard as an important part of the school curriculum.

—Mark A. Pankau, *elementary physical education teacher, Shawnee Mission (Kansas) Public Schools.*

In the excellent interview with physical educator Janis Hill, Ms. Hill expresses her joy in seeing children become physically fit; however, she fails to mention that children should also learn the relationship between physical fitness and health. Elementary school is the time to give children information about their bodies that will encourage them to keep fit all their lives. For example, children should learn that—

- Exercise strengthens the heart and lungs
- Exercise makes the back flexible and strong and so deters lower back pain
- Exercise reduces stress
- Exercise is a factor in weight control.

As people's vocational lives become more sedentary, it becomes more important to give children information about fitness. Besides the vigor and well-being that physical fitness brings, other benefits are beginning to accrue. For example, some life insurance companies have reduced rates for people who exercise regularly. Similarly, some employers are paying their employees to participate in planned fitness programs.

Educators like Janis Hill have a big job to accomplish with today's students—starting in the elementary grades—if adults are to be better prepared for fitness in the future.

—Dianne B. O'Brien, *assistant professor, Department of Instruction and Learning, Murray (Kentucky) State University.*

Your interview with Janis Hill reinforced my impression that school administrators are often insensitive to the problems of elementary physical educators. Many of these problems derive from the logistics of scheduling.

Ms. Hill mentioned that as one of her classes leaves the activity area, the next is at the door ready to enter. Imagine trying to move equipment and change activities for different age groups when they are scheduled so tightly—and this situation is common. A major problem

r PE teachers is the difficulty of rein-cing skills when classes meet only ce a week. A daily program would eatly increase learning.

Principals who don't take into consid-ation that PE teachers teach at more an one school are likely to overesti-ate their availability for extracurricular sponsibilities. But the opposite also is en the case: When a PE teacher aches less than a full day at a school, principal may treat that instructor as tonentity, sometimes failing even to vey routine building information.

erhaps administrators will read this rview and become more aware of PE teacher's special situation.

—Roger Manuel, *Glenbard South gh School, Glen Ellyn, Illinois.*

dents' Health Problems

am thrilled that *Today's Education* is osing myths about chronic health blems among students. "The Stu-nt with Epilepsy" (September-Octo-r) gives the necessary information to viate teachers' fears about one such ase.

he more we know about epilepsy, more we realize that the epileptic d can function socially, educational-and physically as a normal member society. I especially agree with the hors' statement that teachers must cipline epileptic students no differ-y than other students. A double ndard both spoils epileptic children d alienates their peers from them.

his series about health problems is nd to help educators work with the ons of children who have various abilities or illnesses. I look forward to next article in the series.

—Sally Hedberg, *Miramonte High hool, Orinda, California.*

n't worry, mom. There's *plenty* of time et it all done during commercials."

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Program Design and Development for Gifted and Talented Students. Frederick B. Tuttle, Jr., and Laurence A. Becker. 128 pp. 1980. (Z-0733-6-OF) $6.95.

What Research Says to the Teacher: Gifted and Talented Students. Frederick B. Tuttle, Jr. 32 pp. 1979. (Z-0743-3-OF) $1.

Monographs

The following present strategies for identifying and teaching gifted and talented students in the areas specified.

Teaching the Gifted and Talented: In the Elementary Classroom. Mary J. Heimberger. 80 pp. 1980. (Z-0735-2-OF) $4.75.

In the English Classroom. William W. West. 48 pp. 1980. (Z-0734-4-OF) $3.50.

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Job Satisfaction

One-third (35 percent) of all public school teachers are dissatisfied with their current jobs as teachers. Two-fifths (41 percent) would probably not become teachers if they could go back to their college days and start over again. Furthermore, 1 teacher in 10 will leave teaching as soon as possible while another 2 teachers in 10 are undecided how long they will remain in teaching.

These statistics are from the NEA Nationwide Teacher Opinion Poll completed in May 1980. A reliable sample of 1,738 public school teachers across the United States responded to the survey.

A higher percentage of men teachers (39 percent) than women teachers (33 percent) are dissatisfied with their jobs. About half of the men teachers (52 percent) and more than one-third of the women teachers (36 percent) think they would not become teachers if they could start over again.

Secondary teachers are a little more likely than elementary teachers to be dissatisfied with their jobs, to plan to leave teaching as soon as possible, and to think they would not become teachers if they could start over again.

Those teachers who teach in cities and in school systems with over 25,000 students are a little more likely than other teachers to be dissatisfied with their jobs and to plan to leave teaching as soon as possible.

A majority of poll respondents feel the following have had a *negative* effect on their job satisfaction:

- Public attitudes toward schools
- Media treatment of education
- Student attitudes toward learning
- Salary.

About half feel the following have had a *negative* effect:

- Status of teachers in community
- Student behavior.

Less than half feel the following have had a *negative* effect:

- Relationships with other teachers
- Intangible rewards from teaching
- Job security
- Relationships with parents of students
- Physical facilities/environment
- Opportunities for professional growth
- Class sizes.

—NEA Research.

The *Yeshiva* Decision

In its opinion in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Yeshiva*, delivered in February 1980, the U.S. Supreme Court struck a blow against faculty collective bargaining in higher education. Equally more damaging than the decision itself, however, may be the rumors, fears, and misinterpretations it generated. Consequently, it is as important to discuss what the decision did not do and say as it is to discuss what it did. These are the issues on which the *Yeshiva* decision did *not* lay down any rule:

- The rights of most college faculty to unionize
- The rights of faculty in private institutions generally to engage in collective bargaining
- The rights of higher education faculty generally to engage in collective bargaining
- The rights of faculty in public higher education to engage in collective bargaining.

What the 5-to-4 decision did say was that the significant role faculty played in decision making at Yeshiva, a private university in New York City, made the faculty there "managerial" and removed it from coverage under the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA). The NLRA permits private-sector employees to select a bargaining agent and engage in collective bargaining.

According to the majority opinion, written by Justice Lewis F. Powell, Jr., and concurred in by Chief Justice Warren Burger and Justices Potter Stewart, William H. Rehnquist, and John Paul Stevens, III:

> The controlling consideration in this case is that the faculty of Yeshiva University exercises authority which in any other context unquestionably would be managerial. Their authority in academic matters is absolute. . . . To the extent the industrial analogy applies, the faculty determines within each school the product to be produced, the method upon which it will be offered, and the customers who will be served.

The authority to which the decision refers is the faculty's influence on curriculum; grading, admission, and graduation standards; and course scheduling, as well as its ability to make recommendations on hiring, promotion, and tenure. The Court ruled that Yeshiva faculty are excluded from NLRA coverage because they are "aligned with management while participating in academic governance."

In a strong dissent, Justice William J. Brennan, Jr., joined by Justices Byron R. White, Thurgood Marshall, and Harry A. Blackmun, argued—

> What the Court fails to apprehend—is that whatever influence the faculty wields in university decision making is attributable solely to its collective expertise as professional educators, and not to any managerial or supervisory prerogatives . . . . The University always retains the ultimate decision-making authority . . . and the administration gives what weight and import to the faculty's collective judgment as it chooses and deems consistent with its perception of the institution's needs and objectives.

Brennan disputed the majority's theory that collective bargaining is impermissible because the interests of the administration and the faculty are the same:

> The mere coincidence of interests on many issues has never been thought to abrogate the right to collective bargaining on those topics as to which that coincidence is absent. Ultimately, the performance of an employee's duties will always further the interests of the employer, for in no institution do the interests of labor and management totally diverge.

The National Labor Relations Board (NLRB), the federal agency that administers the NLRA, had ordered Yeshiva University to bargain collectively with its faculty organization. Subsequently, the NLRB asked the U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals for the Second Circuit to have its order enforced. The court, however, refused to enforce the order. The NLRB had argued, among other things, that the faculty was not aligned with management because it exercised "independent professional judgment" while participating in academic governance.

The Supreme Court, upholding the Second Circuit's opinion, reasoned that the "faculty's professional interests as applied to governance at a university like Yeshiva cannot be separated from those of the institution." This situation, the High Court majority concluded, would lead to the "problem of divided loyalty," which the National Labor Relations Act is intended to prevent. In an *amicus curiae* brief filed with the Supreme Court, the NEA had argued that since the faculty was not accountable to the administration for its governance decisions, the "damage of divided loyalty [did] not come into play."

Despite the loss of faculty rights it brought about, the *Yeshiva* decision does not directly affect most college faculty. The NLRA does not cover public employees, and thus the ruling does not affect their collective bargaining status. Also, the decision responded to the decision-making mechanism of a specific faculty and did not therefore address directly faculty at any school other than Yeshiva.

NEA General Counsel Robert H. Chanin warned against reading too much into the decision. According to Chanin, while the decision is "unfortunate," an even greater concern is "that it will be misapplied and become a vehicle by means of which recalcitrant colleges and universities will seek to avoid their obligation to bargain in contexts to which the decision has no application."

Chanin made the following observations:

- The *Yeshiva* decision has direct relevance only to private colleges and universities, since they are the ones covered by the NLRA. And even in the private sector, the decision should apply to few, if any, junior colleges, and only to those four-year institutions that have a well-developed system of "shared authority."
- The ruling did not prohibit any faculty from joining labor unions. Nor did it hold that a college or university may not engage in collective bargaining if it chooses to do so. The issue was whether Yeshiva University was *required* to engage in collective bargaining with its faculty organization.
- The decision made clear that each case regarding the bargaining rights of faculty must be judged on its own facts.

Thus, a headline such as the one in the *New York Times* that claimed "End of Unionization at Colleges Is Seen" and rumors of loss of collective bargaining rights at all private schools are best responded to in a manner akin to Mark Twain's famous cable to the Associated Press: "The reports of my death are greatly exaggerated."

—Barbara Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*

Research Clues

Do children learn more from experiences they themselves choose or from direct instruction?

In this study, direct instruction increased learning more than did experiences the students themselves chose. The children learned most, however, when the teacher used a combination: free-choice experiences preceded by lecture and demonstration that provided introductory information relevant to the experiences.

Researchers randomly divided 60 sixth grade students into three groups of 20 each. The subject to be studied was science—specifically, how to criticize experiments and design controlled experiments. One group of students was taught both through lectures and demonstrations and through free-choice experiences for the entire six weeks of the study. A second group learned through free-choice experiences for the first three weeks and through lectures and demonstrations for the second three. The third group learned first through lectures and demonstrations and later through free-choice experiences. Researchers used a pretest and three posttests to measure students' abilities to criticize experiments and to design controlled experiments.

The most effective instructional method overall was the third—lectures and demonstrations followed by free-choice experiences. In all cases, however, direct instruction alone was more effective than free-choice activities alone.

What the results tell teachers is that if you're using only one method, direct instruction is the best choice, but if you can set up a program that uses direct instruction followed by free-choice experience, your students will profit even more.

See Marcia C. Linn. "Free-Choice Experiences: How Do They Help Students Learn?" *Science Education* 64: 237-48; No. 2, 1980.

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

Do teachers have a greater number of positive interactions with students they consider "bright" than with those they consider "dull"?

Yes, contend the authors of this study. The researchers observed all 300 of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students in one elementary school to record their positive, negative, and neutral interactions with their 12 teachers. The researchers observed each student with his or her teacher for four hours toward the end of the school year, a time when teachers are likely to know their students well.

After the observations, the researchers asked the teachers to rate all their students for a variety of characteristics, including "brightness" and "dullness." The researchers then analyzed the interactions with teachers of 96 of the students—the two "brightest" boys, "brightest" girls, "dullest" boys, and "dullest" girls that each teacher named.

The study has one serious problem, however: it totally confounds the selection and measurement criteria. The researchers, for example, classified "providing a correct answer" as one of their six positive interactions. At the same time, teachers would probably consider providing correct answers a criterion of "brightness." Thus, a single characteristic—providing many right answers—would cause a student both to be considered bright and to have many positive interactions. To complicate matters further, the researchers classified "receiving praise or affirmation for a correct answer" as a positive interaction. Again, students selected by teachers as "brightest" would automatically be those who met this condition.

Thus the researchers virtually ask teachers to identify which of their students receive the most positive interactions, then conduct observational measurements to determine which students receive the most positive interactions.

This study is one of numerous studies, beginning with Rosenthal and Jacobsen's *Pygmalion in the Classroom* (1968), that have attempted to link teacher expectations, teacher behavior, student characteristics, and student achievement. The general hypothesis still sounds plausible: If teachers expect a student to achieve, the student will indeed achieve. Researchers have not, however, been able to substantiate it.

See Stephen W. Armstrong, Bob Algozzine, and Lee Sherry. "Perceived Brightness and Classroom Interactions." *Educational Research Quarterly* 4: 54-60; Winter 1979.

What are gifted students really like?

They're well-adjusted to academic endeavors and pretty much like other students in the activities they undertake, according to this extensive study of 1,593 tenth graders from 46 high schools. All the students were in their state's program of education for the gifted: They had placed among the top 2 percent of the students at their grade level, and that school psychologists had identified them as gifted.

The study found that these students are happy; have high self-concepts, especially concerning academic ability; feel that they're generally in control of their own lives; and have positive attitudes toward school, their teachers, and learning.

Generally, these gifted students plan to attend college, want to get a master's degree, are oriented toward achievement in intellectual areas, and plan to pursue managerial or professional careers. They engage in a balanced set of activities: studying, engaging in social contact, reading, watching television, working around the house, and in some cases being employed.

Two unexpected findings arose. First, these students reported that they didn't consider themselves especially talented and that they had received few awards or other tokens of recognition. The author attributes this finding to modesty. Second, 67 percent of these students indicated that they were unpopular or very unpopular. Since some of the same students also report that they're happy, however, the author feels that they don't require peer approval for happiness but gain it through a sense of accomplishment and success.

See Romeria Tidwell. "A Psycho-Educational Profile of 1,593 Gifted High School Students." *Gifted Child Quarterly* 24: 63-68; Spring 1980.

What are typical characteristics of Black students who drop out of school?

This comparison of the Black dropouts to the Black nondropouts in a mid-

-sized city school system found that o characteristics contributed heavily dropping out of school: intelligence d little drive for achievement. Black udents who drop out of school, in gen- al, do not value school achievement t have higher intelligence than Blacks o don't drop out.

On the basis of interviews with drop- ts, the authors conclude that these mer students feel that their decision leave school was realistic and intelli- nt given their low socioeconomic sta- s, problems caused by racial discrimi- tion, and lack of opportunity.

Teachers should be aware that cks who drop out are doing so not cause of inability to learn or do the rk (achievement test scores of drop- ts were little different from those of ndropouts). Students need encour- gement and help in making the con- ction between staying in school and er success in life.

See Ronald L. Richardson and S. aig Geback. "Black Dropouts: A udy of Significant Factors Contribut- g to a Black Student's Decision." *ban Education* 14: 489-95; January 80.

Are we hurting students by not owing them to know failure?

Very likely, argues this article. School actices such as programmed instruc- n, inflated grades, and mastery learn- g are designed to maximize success every student. They may be lowering udents' levels of anxiety, frustration, d perseverance too far, however. If these practices will produce stu- nts who can't tolerate imperfect per- rmance, avoid taking risks, and re- at when they encounter failure.

The article reviews research on five psychological theories about the effects of failure on human behavior. The research supports the idea that some failure can be beneficial to later performance. In essence, the author's point of view is that school practices that create excessive failure are detrimental, but practices that create excessive success by eliminating almost all chances of failure also are detrimental.

See Margaret M. Clifford. "Effects of Failure: Alternative Explanations and Possible Implications." *Educational Psychologist* 14: 44-52; 1979.

Do multiage classrooms improve student achievement and self-concept?

The students in this study showed no increase or decrease in achievement, but did increase in one of the six self-concept factors measured—happiness and satisfaction.

The sample consisted of 135 students in 4 multiage classrooms in three suburban elementary schools.

The classrooms included groups of six- and seven-; eight- and nine-; nine- and 10-; and eight-, nine-, and 10-year-olds. The achievement and self-concept of these children were compared to those of a control group of 231 children in 5 single-age classrooms.

Little research has been conducted on the effects of multiage classrooms. Although this study indicates possible positive benefits, it should not, in itself, be used to justify the creation of such classrooms.

See Joyce Way. "The Effects of Multiage Grouping on Verbal Interaction, Achievement, and Self-Concept." Cortland, N.Y.: Institute for Experimentation in Teacher Education, State University of New York at Cortland, February 1980. 27 pp. □

"Our tests show that 32 percent of Group A equalled what 27 percent of Group C did last year before we applied plan B to 50 percent of the group in sequence III. Is that good or bad?"

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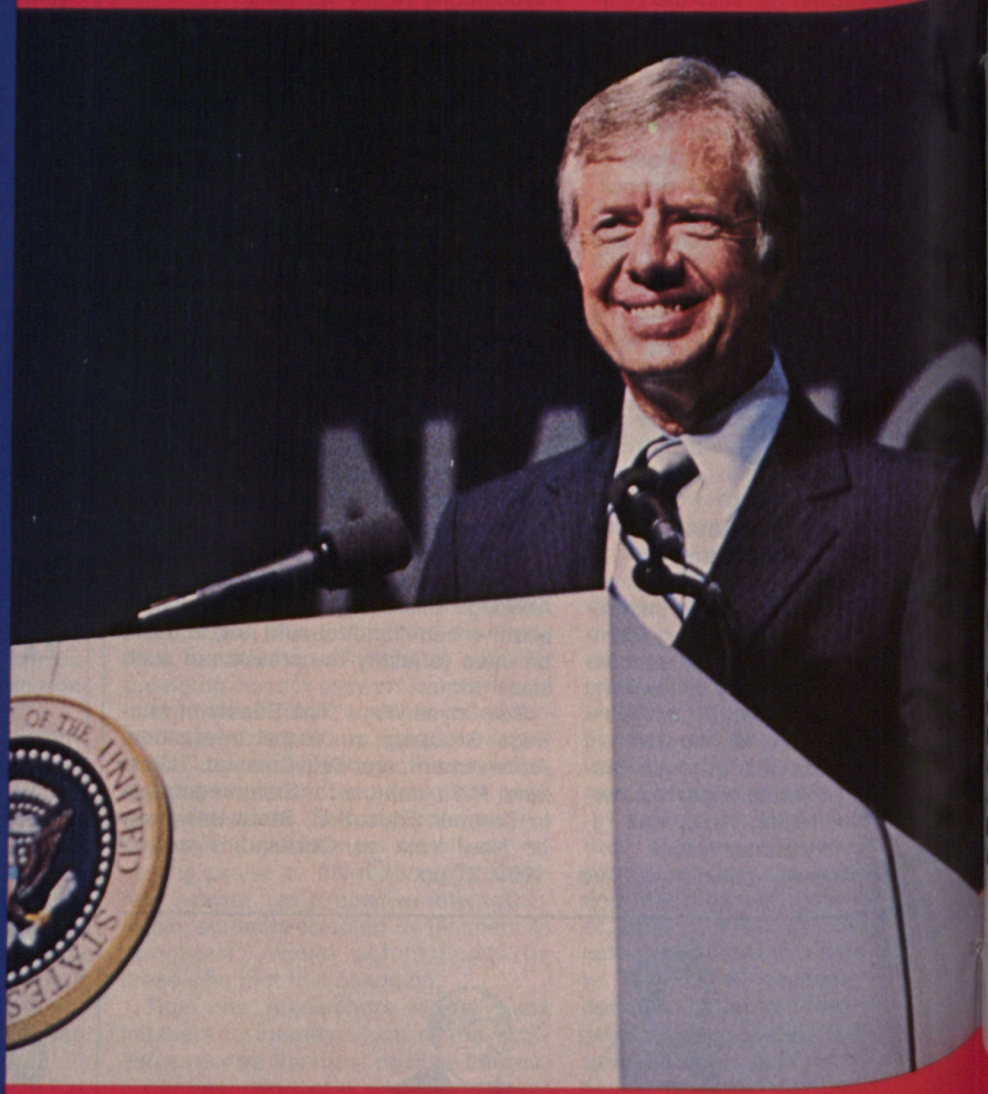

Editorial

MONDALE

A Clear-Cut Choice

This year's presidential election will have a tremendous impact on our country throughout the rest of this century. Whoever is elected will have enormous impact on all facets of American life—including our education system. Teachers recognize this fact. They also recognize that the candidate for President of the United States in 1980 has served our democracy and our education system well: that candidate is Jimmy Carter. Therefore, the 1980 NEA Representative Assembly (RA) endorsed the reelection of President Carter. This action of NEA's elected representatives reflects their opinion that giving President Carter and Vice-President Mondale another term to continue to work for education and human needs is important to America.

There are clear and crucial differences between the hands of the two major party presidential candidates and their party platforms. A review of those differences will, I believe, reveal the reasons why the NEA Representative Assembly voted to endorse President Carter.

By WILLARD McGUIRE
President, NEA.

True to his 1976 commitment, President Carter made education a top national priority. He has proclaimed his partnership with teachers and NEA.

He has responded positively to the needs and concerns of America's teachers, because he considers teachers to be among the most important resources of our country. Not only has he spoken out for education and teachers, he has also included teachers in matters of state and national importance, including conferences, international meetings, and White House events.

Together the President and teachers have accomplished a great deal since January 1977. Together with congressional friends of education, we have—

- Dramatically increased federal support for education.
- Brought about a separate Department of Education (ED) that brings together education programs that were previously scattered among various departments. (Besides cutting through layers of bureaucracy and saving millions of hours of paperwork, the new Department increases the visibility of education and enhances its position among the nation's highest priorities.)

• Defeated attempts to enact tuition tax credits, a scheme that would divert to private schools money desperately needed by the public schools.

Our work, however, is not complete. Some of our goals have not yet been achieved. Together—in the next four years—the President and teachers will continue to work toward—

• Establishment of collective bargaining rights for teachers and other public employees.

• Ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment.

• Establishment of a system of health insurance that would, for the first time, guarantee to all Americans the availability of basic medical services.

In contrast, former California Governor Ronald Reagan takes the opposite position on nearly every issue noted above. Reagan and his Republican platform oppose—

• Even the moderate level of federal support for education that exists today.

• The continued existence of the Department of Education (though Reagan has not said what he would do with all the programs that ED administers).

• Collective bargaining rights for teachers and other public employees.

• The Equal Rights Amendment.

• A national program of health insurance for all Americans. The Republican position is that health care is fine as it is today although hospital administrators should try to hold down costs—even though this approach has failed in the past, as demonstrated by rising health costs.

Moreover, Reagan and his platform support—

• Tuition tax credits to aid private schools, despite the disastrous effects tax credits could have on the public school system.

• The politicization of the judiciary: appointment at all levels of the judiciary of only those individuals who agree with the GOP position against abortion.

• The Kemp-Roth 30 percent tax-cut proposal, which would be far more beneficial to wealthy citizens than to the majority of Americans. If put into effect, Kemp-Roth would drastically reduce the funds that today support the nation's programs for human needs. These are the programs through which our government satisfies its responsibility to protect the right of all Americans to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

• Increases in military spending well above current levels.

A massive increase in military spending concurrent with a 30 percent reduction in taxes would obviously cripple the funding of remaining programs. At the same time, Reagan says, he would also balance the budget—an action that would require still more cuts in vital government programs.

Implementing these fiscal proposals would necessitate hamstringing programs that are vital to the health and welfare of Americans. Many, perhaps most, of the services Americans receive from our government today would be impaired.

In his acceptance speech at the Republican convention in Detroit, Governor Reagan recalled that President Franklin Delano Roosevelt had proposed cutting the size of the federal government when he first campaigned for the presidency. Voters should remember, however, that during a period of worldwide economic depression and uncertainty, President Roosevelt depended on key government programs to help the people; he did not destroy government services and depend on business alone to deal with our nation's economic problems—some of the most serious the nation ever experienced.

Comparing the Carter record and platform with the Reagan record and platform confirms the wisdom of the choice made by the delegates to the 1980 NEA Representative Assembly. But some have asked why NEA endorses a presidential candidate, and if education is really an important national issue.

The answer to both questions is that education must be of top national importance. A democracy cannot long survive without an educated citizenry. Yet one of the presidential candidates would channel badly needed funds for education to serve the desires of the few at the expense of the needs of the many. Such an action would cripple our nation's education system, a system that has served this country well for many years.

The teaching profession must protect our free public schools and prevent attacks on their fiscal support. Teaching is more than our job; it is our profession. Promoting education as a top national priority through our words, actions, and votes is an obligation for us.

Deciding which presidential candidate to vote for requires a rational judgment based upon a deliberate weighing of alternatives. In the present case, the choice is clear. The major candidates differ sharply on most of the key issues our country faces. Nowhere is that difference clearer or more critical than in the area of education. That area is our area of responsibility.

Accordingly, I believe it is vital that every teacher in this nation participate in the effort to reelect President Jimmy Carter and Vice-President Walter Mondale. I believe their reelection is of crucial importance to education and to our country. □

MAKING THE DEMOCRATIC PROCESS WORK:

Teachers Unite To Reelect Carter-Mondale

November 4 will be the climax of a year of intense political activity by NEA members in every section of the ation. Over the past months, Association members have en engaged in the process of nominating and electing the xt President and Vice-President of the United States. In is year's presidential election contest, as in 1976, NEA s endorsed President Jimmy Carter and Vice-President alter Mondale.

The NEA method of presidential endorsement was initiated by direction of the NEA Representative Assembly in 74. It was designed to provide a procedure whereby sociation political involvement could be extended into e critical area of choosing a President and Vice-President the United States.

This is how it has worked for the 1980 presidential ction. More than a year ago, exercising an option in

GOP Blocks Teacher Participation

Twenty-four percent of NEA's members are Republicans. (Forty percent are Democrats; 35 percent claim affiliation with no party.) This year, a number of factors prevented widespread participation of teachers in the Republican Party's selection of a presidential candidate. Although many of those teachers tried just as hard as their colleagues who are Democrats to become involved in the processes of their party, they failed largely for two reasons:

- Candidate Reagan's early and decisive defeat of his opponents for the GOP nomination in effect stranded many Republican teachers who had hoped to become delegates to the Detroit Convention through their support for GOP candidates who held positions more favorable to education than Reagan's. By the time delegate elections were held in many states, the teachers' candidates—people like U.S. Senator Howard Baker of Tennessee—were no longer in the race.
- Members of the right wing of the Republican Party, riding the popularity of their presidential candidate, Ronald Reagan, organized the GOP early and well and gained control over the Republican Convention in Detroit, Michigan.

Not only were the views of teachers not heeded, they were not even heard. NEA President Willard McGuire was denied an opportunity to address the Platform Committee of the GOP.

One teacher from New York reported that he was denied delegate status when the local Republican leadership in his area drew up a slate that included the names of only the top 10 financial contributors to the GOP over the last four years. The factors that closed out that teacher worked also to exclude the disadvantaged, minorities, women, and those of moderate means and views. The median annual income for a GOP delegate in 1980 was $47,000. Fewer than 1 in 3 were women. Fewer than 2 percent were Black. Fewer than 2 in 100 had incomes of less than $12,000; and fewer than 1 in 5 described themselves as "moderate to liberal" in political philosophy. Teachers were obviously not the only people shut out in Detroit.

NEA's Multi-Option Presidential Endorsement System (see the box accompanying this article), the NEA Political Action Committee (NEA-PAC) recommended that the Association support President Jimmy Carter in the 1980 presidential primaries. The NEA Board of Directors voted that support by an overwhelming margin—118 to 4.

Under the endorsement procedure, individual state affiliates must also concur in an endorsement before NEA support can be implemented in a given state. Forty-nine of NEA's state-level affiliates concurred in NEA's support for Carter. As a result, NEA and its members and affiliates played a key role in Carter's nomination. In the early contests in Florida and Iowa, for example, teachers turned out by the thousands to support the President.

As the political season swept onward, a pattern emerged. Over and over again, Association members supported President Carter, and consequently, his delegate count swelled toward the 1,666 needed for nomination at the Democratic Party Convention.

Teachers were elected in record numbers as delegates and alternates to that Convention. The overwhelming majority of them—414 of the 464—were Carter backers. Their activity helped keep teachers and education issues in the spotlight throughout the long, hot political summer of 1980.

On July 3, President Carter traveled to Los Angeles to address the NEA Representative Assembly (RA). The President reviewed the achievements of his Administration that were realized as a result of its partnership with NEA; he pointed to, among other successes, the establishment of the Cabinet-level Department of Education and increased federal funding for education. In addition, he stressed the mutual goals that he and NEA must still work toward, including ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment.

Then on July 4, the 7,500 delegates to the RA voted in a secret ballot by more than 3 to 1 to endorse President Carter for reelection.

In August, teachers again played leading roles in the political process—this time at the Democratic Convention in New York City. The nation watched on television as scores of teachers translated their concerns for the nation and its future into participation in the most important conclave of the nation's largest political party.

NEA members served in key positions at the Democratic Convention:

- Cordell Affeldt of Indiana, Judy English of Colorado, Elaine Hoffstetter and Mary Esther Vanschure of New York, and Wally Young of Delaware served on the Rules Committee.
- Barbara Roberts Mason of Michigan served as a member of the 15-person Drafting Subcommittee of the Platform Committee, and Alice McDonald of Kentucky chaired the Human Needs Section of the full Committee—the section that concerned itself with education and other human needs issues.

Other Association members on the Platform Committee were Bill Potter of Alaska, Inola Henry and Billie Masters of California, Vinnie Lefredo of Connecticut, Jim Baker of Kentucky, Mary Murphy of Massachusetts, Marvin Cousins of Tennessee, Judith Lonnquist of Washington, and Maurice Andrews of Wisconsin.

In addition, two Association members were elected chairs of their state delegations; two more were elected vice chairpersons of their delegations. Chet Blaylock of Montana and Ronn Robinson of Washington were elected state chairpersons; and Elaine Marks of South Carolina and Rosalie Spaulding of Maine, vice-chairs. Unfortunately, Chet Blaylock became ill on the drive to New York City and had to watch the proceedings from a hospital in Sioux City, Iowa.

A number of states had sizable numbers of NEA members in their delegations: California, 35; Washington, 25; Oklahoma, 24; Texas, 22; Illinois, 20; Michigan, 18; South Carolina, 17; Virginia, 16; Florida and Tennessee, 15 each;

Alabama and Georgia, 14 each; Iowa, 13; Kentucky, 11.

In New York, teachers made their presence felt. Some examples of their activities include—

- The pro-ERA demonstration they led the first night of the convention.
- Speeches from the podium by five NEA members on rules and platform issues.
- NEA Executive Director Terry Herndon's introduction of Vice-President Mondale for his acceptance speech on the last night of the convention. By giving the honor of making this introduction to an NEA leader, the President and Vice-President of the United States acknowledged the Association's importance to their candidacies, their Party, and the people of this nation.

Since the two national party conventions (see the accompanying box for information on teacher involvement in the Republican Convention), teachers have concentrated their efforts on the reelection of President Carter and Vice-President Mondale. Communicating with other members and their families about the accomplishments of the Carter-Mondale Administration and the marked contrasts between the Carter-Mondale record and that of Ronald Reagan has been a major activity. (For a review of some of the key positions on which they disagree, see the Editorial by NEA President Willard McGuire.)

On November 4, the election, no doubt, will be close. The participation of NEA's 1.8 million members and their family members may well make the difference in who wins. Teachers' votes will be crucial.

This has been a banner year for teacher involvement in politics. Teachers are making history as they practice what they teach. In so doing, they help keep our democratic processes vital and protect America's most important national treasures: its children and its future.

NEA's support of Jimmy Carter and Walter Mondale is one expression of teachers' commitment to excellence in education and democracy. □

Multi-Option Presidential Endorsement System*

NEA-PAC will conduct the candidate screening process and may make a recommendation to Representative Assembly delegates. NEA-PAC will develop such operating procedures and guidelines as it requires for participation in the NEA presidential endorsement process.

National, state, and local organization channels and resources will be used to provide members with information related to the endorsement process, presidential candidates, and issues and to assess member attitudes and opinions.

The president of NEA shall make any announcement of endorsement.

Option I

A vote by delegates to the NEA Representative Assembly will be the deciding factor in endorsement by NEA of a presidential candidate. The vote will be conducted by mail ballot sent to duly elected delegates within two weeks following the last major political party nominating convention.

Within one week after identification of all major political party nominees, NEA-PAC shall approve an official ballot which shall then be mailed to all duly elected delegates within one week after approval. NEA-PAC may also recommend a choice to the delegates at least three days prior to mailing of the official ballots.

If the official ballot contains three options (e.g., two candidates and "no endorsement"), a simple majority shall be required for endorsement.

If the official ballot contains two options, an endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option II

The NEA Representative Assembly delegates may vote during the annual meeting to endorse an incumbent U.S. President for reelection. The method of voting shall be by secret ballot.

An endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option III

The NEA Representative Assembly delegates may vote by mail ballot before the annual meeting to endorse an incumbent U.S. President for reelection.

An endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option IV

The NEA Representative Assembly delegates may vote by mail ballot to endorse a presidential candidate before any major political party has conducted its national nominating convention.

An endorsement of this type would require 58 percent of those voting.

Option for Support in Primaries

Upon the recommendation of NEA-PAC, the NEA Board of Directors may authorize support of presidential candidates prior to national party nominating conventions.

This support would require 58 percent majority of the NEA Board members voting. Concurrence of the appropriate body in an individual state must be obtained before this support is implemented in the state affected by the primary.

Any subsequent endorsement would require utilization of one or more of the options for endorsement.

*Adopted by the 1978 NEA Representative Assembly

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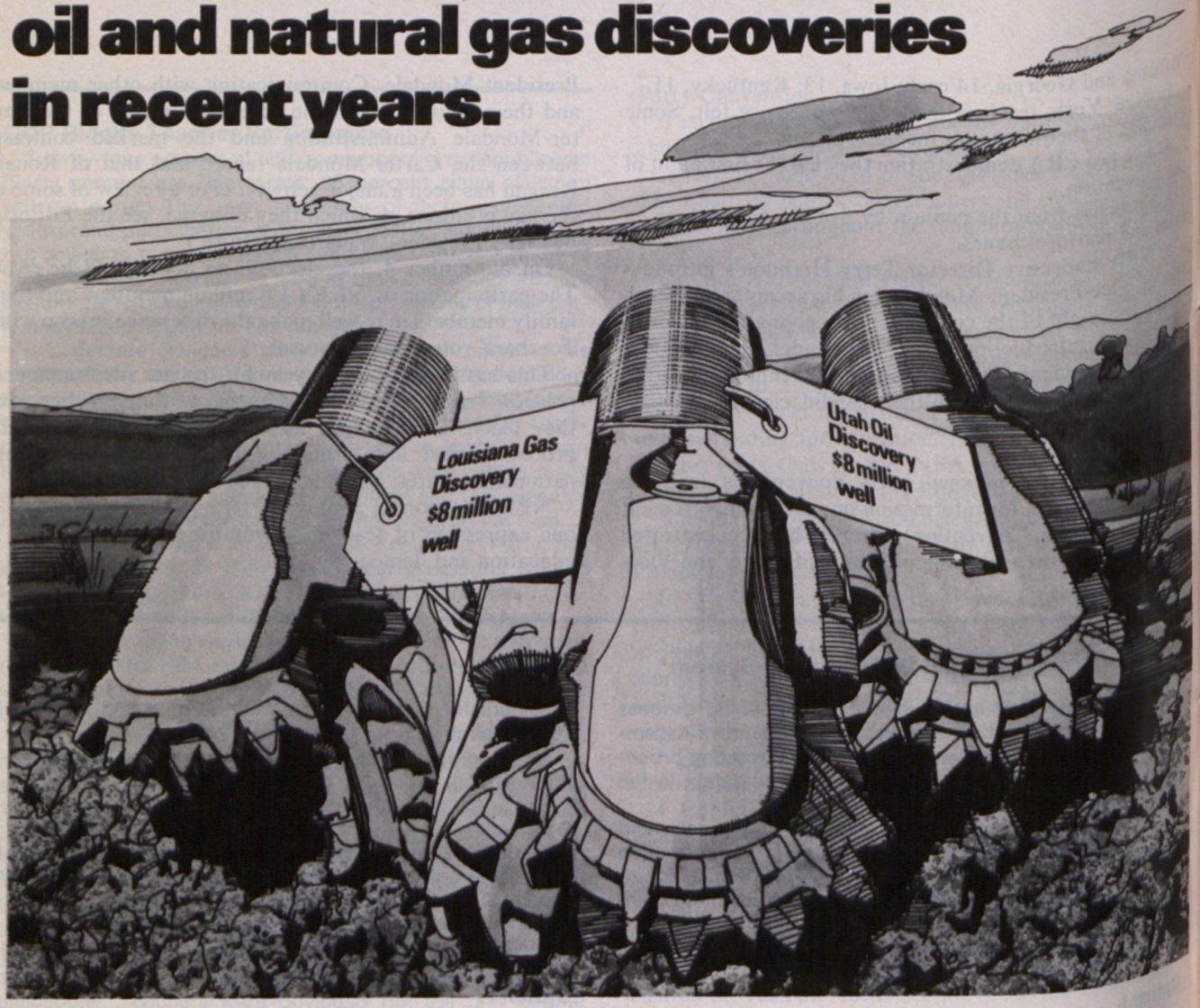

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TEACHING IN THE CITY

STRUGGLING TO LEARN —AND WINNING

I'm trying to expose my students in this urban high school to everything students are getting in suburban Montgomery County, Maryland, in the best schools money can buy. I want to be sure the education my students get is as good as that of students in more affluent communities.

We're accomplishing that. Urban education is working and will continue to work. All I can say to the public is, Just give us more money, please, and put more confidence in what we can do. The budget is the monster that is devouring urban schools.

If the ever-present possibility of losing our jobs were eliminated, we could teach with a free mind—but education in this city, maybe in the whole country, does not have enough budgetary priority.

For example, budget cuts in the District of Columbia are putting hundreds of teachers out of work. I myself have been teaching for eight years now, and I have been in four different yearbooks. What I want to know is, How many different schools will they send me to before I can say, "I know I'll be back here in September"?

We've got good teachers here in Washington; still, at any time a letter can come to any of us saying, "You're an excess person." Having your job abolished is never pleasant; for teachers who are supporting families and paying mortgages with their teaching salaries, the blow is even harder.

Not only teachers but students feel the pressure of budgetary problems. The students know that we have a winning football team but our coach has been riffed. They know that they raised thousands of dollars for new band uniforms but the band director has been riffed. They know that certain favorite teachers won't be there any more.

These overwhelming budgetary problems, however, don't make urban education impossible. Urban schools can succeed in spite of them if we put less emphasis on things that tear us apart. Urban education has two sides.

Last year, for example, a boy was shot inside our school. I know; I was the one who had to call the police. They kept asking me for a description of the assailant, and I kept saying, "Hey, a kid is shot, come here, give us some help!" That's one side of urban education.

But there is also another side. One of our graduates is going to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology this year on a scholarship. Our school has National Merit winners.

So if somebody asks me about urban teaching, I have a choice of saying, "A kid got shot; a teacher's coat was taken," or saying "We've got scholarship winners, a student who works in the office of the board of education, a student whose poem was published by Scholastic Press."

All teachers have a choice. We can say, "Oh, I have to go to work today," or "What's going to be new at school today? What's going to happen with these kids today?"

Just a balanced attitude isn't enough: An urban teacher needs a good sense of humor. For example, in one of my English classes, the administration kept adding students. I would get more books issued for the class, and another student would show up. For three weeks, the class increased by leaps and bounds, until finally we had five more students than we had books. I just collected all those books I had issued and said, "If every student can't have a book, no one will. We'll use newspapers, older books, clippings. We'll use our own experiences. We'll use dittoed materials, Xeroxed materials, novels. We'll talk." In a situation like that, you have to laugh, because as soon as you get one thing straight, something else is going to happen.

The students are not the problem. Some people believe that today's student is a new animal who comes to school with dope and a knife. No. These kids are the same kids who have come into classrooms over the years. The economic and societal conditions have changed, but students and their requirements remain basically the same. Their greatest needs are still attention and support.

A lot of the violence in the schools is

By PAULETTE PRATTIS
English and American Literature Teacher, Eastern High School, Washington, DC.

reactive violence. It's a way of saying, "Look at me; listen to me; don't cut the program where I'm excelling—don't take away my opportunity because of a budgetary problem." Kids don't accept cuts easily. If they're in a remedial reading program and it's abolished for budgetary reasons, they know how that will affect their lives. So I believe a lot of the violence is reactive.

Students don't get violent in my classes, and I think it's because they know they can work out problems in less explosive ways. For example, if a problem arises, we deal with it right that minute. We stop class. "OK, let's all get into this. What's the problem here?" We don't call in administrators or police. We deal with it right then, in the classroom, and when it's finished, it's finished.

The students know I'm available to them. We sit down and have lunch together and talk—not always as teacher and student, but sometimes as person to person. We share experiences. This way kids learn that teachers are real people—we get hurt, we can cry, we can laugh, we can be mean sometimes; students understand that.

When I was in high school, we were told a lot of things we later found to be unrealistic—about the educational structure and its objectives and what it was preparing us for. Maybe we were deluded, but we had dreams.

Today's urban children have had painful realities forced on them. They don't dream as much. They are survivors, prepared to deal with the challenges they must face.

Students don't come into the classroom out of a vacuum. They come with all kinds of experience. Life has made demands on them that have made them grow as individuals, in some ways we adults probably haven't even experienced.

The teacher has to know what more the students will need in order to deal with life when they get out of school. So the teacher and the student sit down and put their knowledge and experience together to devise programs.

One of the harshest realities that students face today is the difficulty of getting a job. The truth is, there are no real jobs out there, and I don't have an answer. All I can do is prepare students as well as I can. Besides preparing them academically, I try to teach them to appreciate the value of work and to do as well as they can at whatever job they can get. They need to learn that taking a job they don't like need not mean discarding their ultimate career goals.

I won't let them take refuge in self-pity—"Look at what's happening to me. I don't have a job."

OK, fine, that doesn't mean it's forever. I tell them, "Get what you can. Get your skills together now. Knock on some more doors. Don't wallow in discouragement."

I love my kids, but I don't pamper them. Students have sat in front of me and cried from hopelessness, and I have had to hold myself back from running over and hugging them. They have to see that although I care a great deal, after the tears comes the time to deal with the situation.

I try to make the English class valuable to my students. They come to room 209 to get some skills in English grammar and American literature, and they don't take much on faith. They'll ask, Why am I learning this? What benefit will this have?

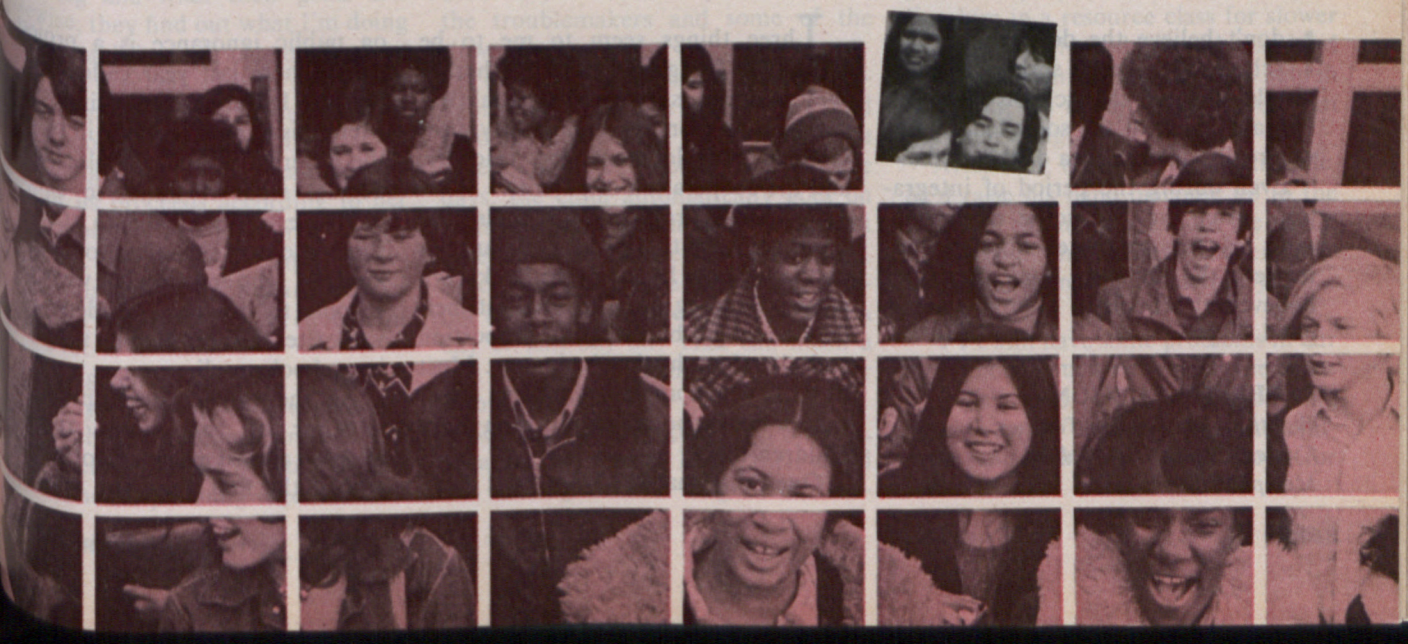
A student asked me, "Why am I learning this kind of English? We don't talk like that."

I quoted Jesse Jackson: " 'When you're in the den of the lion, you speak lion'—and we're speaking lion now. I can appreciate you, but when you go for those job interviews, the employers will not hire you because you're cool. They want to see your skills."

I tell my students how Thoreau and Emerson and Poe thought, and they tell me how they think; the two aren't always so far apart.

Some of my colleagues believe we should merely stress the grammar and skip over some of the writers. For two reasons I expose my students to some writers those other teachers choose to omit.

First, even the child who is not talented academically can appreciate ideas about situations and feelings that all people share. When my classes study Thoreau or Poe, for example, we read aloud from their works and then talk about what we can learn from



their ideas and their survival skills.

When we talk about Richard Wright, we don't focus on the discrimination and the forces that opposed him. We focus on how he dealt with them, what he learned from them, and what he became because of them.

My second reason is purely pragmatic: If students take College Board or other exams, they have to be familiar with these writers.

Of course, I have a different idea about testing: I think it should be a tool of the teacher. But as long as my students have to take those standardized tests, they're going to know the answers. That's survival, too.

Besides teaching, another part of my job at Eastern High School is that of faculty sponsor of the Student Government Association. Every homeroom nominates two students to the Student Government, and they all meet together every week. But when some of the other students saw the things we were doing, they started to come by and say, "Hey, I'm not a representative, but I want to work."

We've got some good kids—not only at Eastern High School, but everywhere—and they're doing and producing good things.

The kids feel great about doing something positive. At Christmastime there was a big dinner at the Stadium Armory for the elderly. Our Student Government kids went down there to help dish up the food. We were all elbow deep in sweet potatoes. Even the toughest kids mellow when they find they have helped somebody else.

We've done the showy things like the pageants and homecoming, but we do other things also. We've gone on the radio. Once, for example, the students talked about violence in the schools; once they talked about budget cuts.

Then every time a school board meeting or a Black mayors' conference or anything else that's interesting takes place in the city, students are there to cover it. When Senator Ted Kennedy spoke at Shiloh Church, they were there. I have tried to expose the students to everything I think they should learn about what's going on in this city.

I don't always use the "brightest" students or the ones who make the school look good, either. I give each one a chance to go.

The kids I took to the Black mayors' conference, for example, were not academically superior. But they were the kids who needed to see that we have some outstanding Black mayors in this country, people who can tell them, "Look, this is where I came from, and this is what I'm dealing with, and you can do it too."

You've got to like teaching to do it now. You've got to like it because many of the circumstances are a lot more difficult now. Basically, however, teachers—like students—are the same as they've always been. I think each teacher, when he or she goes into that room with a certain number of students, feels the same sense of responsibility and challenge: "I will have some effect on the minds and the futures of these individuals sitting here in front of me."

Sometimes the rewards don't come immediately. A kid might come back two years after graduation and say, "You used to give me hell, but now I know what you were talking about." That makes you feel good.

I enjoy teaching at Eastern. I don't like the threat that my job might be taken away. But we have to deal with the actual situation, because we don't have time to think about what isn't happening. Kids are happening. □

[As of press time, the District of Columbia Board of Education was planning to eliminate roughly 750 teaching positions for the 1980-81 school year. A Board representative cautioned that more cuts might yet be made.—Ed.]

TEACHING IN THE CITY

WORKING HARD TO HELP CHILDREN LEARN

I don't believe the decline of urban schools was ever as serious as many people outside the schools thought. Perhaps much of the so-called decline was really just the idea of the media.

Even during the period of integration, when we had some disruption, most teachers continued working hard to help the children learn. Today, I believe our schools in Memphis are in good shape.

By RIO RITA JACKSON
Eighth Grade English Teacher, Cypress Junior High School, Memphis, Tennessee.

Three things seem to me to be important for good schools, whether they're urban, suburban, or rural: understanding from the community, professional development for teachers, and the cooperation of parents.

Part of the problem our schools have faced has been that people who are not in the schools have not really known what was going on. The smallest incident could get blown out of proportion and give the schools a bad name. Most of those who complained loudest about the public schools didn't even have children there.

One thing that has helped cut down on public ignorance is a project we started here last year called Adopt-a-School. Different major industries in Memphis agreed to work in pairs with the different public schools. Each pair decides what it wants to do. Some industries offer advice to students in their adopted schools about different kinds of jobs and provide ways for the schools to get their students out to work sites. Others help by supplementing school supplies.

As the project developed, one or another of the major industries adopted almost every school, and at the end of the first year, the schools and

industries in the program were very pleased with the results of their work together. Also—and this was very important—the program has given the community a better opportunity to see what is going on in the schools. The public no longer has to rely on second-hand information.

Although we don't have a teacher center in Memphis, we have found ways of working together for professional development. Teachers here want more information that will actually help in the classroom—something a little better than the usual kinds of in-service activities. Rather than go to the university and take a course, we carry on our own in-service activities in the schools.

Since we've found that teachers do a much better job of stimulating and helping other teachers than do those who are considered experts, we work with other teachers in our school. We share ideas and suggestions, and we develop materials that are specifically aimed toward the needs of our own students.

In our school, we have meetings across grade levels in each subject area. The first week of each six-week period, we discuss what our goals are for that period and develop objectives. Then at the end of that period, we bring our evaluation of how well we've met those goals, and we establish new ones. During this whole process, we share information with one another, and that's useful to all of us.

For instance, when all of the English teachers meet together, I find out what the seventh and ninth grade teachers are doing and what their goals are. Likewise, they find out what I'm doing with my eighth grade classes. Each of us gets a general idea of what the department is doing, and the continuity is smoother for the children.

Planning together is pleasant, too. Each of us proceeds according to her own personality and plans and experiences, but we find a good bit of enjoyment in sharing techniques and materials, and I think the children benefit quite a lot.

In any given school unit, of course, the principal determines how well and how much the teachers are able to work together. In our school we have school time for planning together. Until recently, however, a teacher would be expected to work all day and then stay after school to meet and plan.

Cooperation from parents has not improved as our community relations and teacher development have. In fact, the most obvious change I've seen in 15 years of teaching seems to come from a deterioration in parents' attitudes. Students are becoming more and more reluctant to learn. Although the attitudes of the children reflect many changes in society, they reflect the attitudes of the family as well.

At one time, when a teacher assigned work, students would do it and bring it in. Now it's very difficult to get students to study. Many of them don't care that much about grades, and some even seem to be determined not to learn. I'm determined that my students will learn, however, and they usually do.

I remember when parents used to impose conditions on their children: "You are going to do well in school, or you won't be allowed to do this or to have that." But talking with parents in recent years gives me the impression that they aren't exerting much control. It's very discouraging when a mother comes in for a conference and almost her first words are, "I can't do a thing with him." I have had parents tell me, "Sure, she does her homework. Every night after the late movie she starts."

I try to meet the parents of all my students during the first six weeks of school. I seldom succeed. I am especially determined, however, to meet the parents of those students who seem to need a bit more help than I can give them in just the class period: that is, the troublemakers and some of the slower learners.

For disruptive behavior, I give a student two or three warnings, then I send a conference slip to the parents. If a parent doesn't respond within five days, the child automatically goes on home suspension. Knowing this, most parents respond and come in to see me. Since many of the parents work, coming in for a conference means taking a day or half-day off. That can mean a real hardship for them, but they prefer it to a suspension.

Some parents are glad I call them in, because they didn't know their child was making trouble. In general, however, parents come in upset. They don't want to be there. I talk to them about what I'm trying to accomplish with their child. Usually they leave quite satisfied, and I will have found out all kinds of things. Maybe it turns out that the mother is an alcoholic or has had a serious illness and become addicted to the medication.

In any case, I almost always see a positive change in the children after I've had a conference with the parents. Sometimes the problem is one the parents can solve themselves; sometimes I refer them through the guidance staff to an outside agency that offers family counseling or other help.

If I tried to deal with the disruptive behavior or the apathy of my students without talking to their parents, I would never be able to understand the causes. Sometimes I get a real surprise.

For example, last year I had a student who never said a word and never finished an assignment. One of his eyes watered continuously, and he put his face right down close to his desk to see his work.

I called his mother in and told her I was worried about his eyesight.

She said, "Ms. Jackson, didn't you know that he has a glass eye? About four years ago he ran into a tree branch, and it put out his eye.

"Now he just reads everything he can get his hands on about an eye transplant. He's withdrawn, and he's hard to get along with. He just wants that eye."

That mother was very much concerned about her son, but she had no idea of what she could do to help. The guidance people had thought of putting him in a resource class for slower learners, but he didn't need that kind of help. He simply needed some help in accepting his condition. I helped him get counseling.

After that, if he was having trouble, he'd raise his hand or come up to the desk and ask me a question. He began to open up. And his next teacher knew from the beginning about the eye.

We still have some problems in our city schools, but I've decided the classroom is where I'll be for a good long time. I enjoy working with the children, and I have a lot of hope for them. □

HELPING CHILDREN UNDERSTAND DIVORCE

Almost every individual in the United States has felt some effects from a divorce. Research suggests that approximately 40 percent of all married adults will get divorced at least once. Nearly 25 percent of the children in our country are living with one parent who is divorced or separated or with a parent who has remarried after divorce.

Almost all these millions of children have undergone stress from external conditions and internal feelings.

Within a home where a divorce occurs, the children face major changes which often cause stress. They have to learn to deal with such things as parents who date, double holiday celebrations, more supervision by babysitters, less income, new rules, and even new relatives when a parent remarries.

Lack of information also causes stress. Seldom do parents have a good discussion with their child about their divorce. The child may pick up some information by hearing the parents discuss the divorce and its causes in the course of an argument or a phone conversation. Relatives or babysitters also may try to explain the divorce. Information drawn from these conversations is by its nature often biased or exaggerated.

Many adults are unable to understand their own feelings during a divorce because they lack the training to identify and label them. Children are far less prepared to comprehend their thoughts and feelings as they see their parents separate after perhaps several years of arguments, threats, anger, hostility, repression, and rejection.

Some of the feelings that often create stress in children whose parents get divorced are anger, guilt, and loneliness.

- Much of children's anger during a divorce comes from being caught in a situation over which they have no control.
- Many children suffer guilt because they feel (wrongly) that they have helped cause the divorce.
- In addition, divorce may cause loneliness in children. A parent has left the home, and if one or both parents have started dating, the child may have less time with parents than before the divorce.

A high degree of stress, whatever its cause, will almost certainly affect children's behavior and ability to perform in the classroom. Specific kinds of behavior, such as the following, may be signs to the teacher that a child is feeling stress.

- Absentmindedness. A child may begin to make a habit of staring out the window, laying his or her head on the desk, or showing inattention in some other way. Or a child may turn in work only partly completed, forget to finish scattered problems on a paper, or often

By **ROBERT D. ALLERS**
Psychologist, Forest Hills Public Schools, Grand Rapids, Michigan.

In a scene from *Kramer vs. Kramer*, a deserted father, Dustin Hoffman, brings son, Justin Henry, to school.

ask the teacher to repeat directions.

• Nervousness. Nervousness may cause a child to fidget, bite fingernails, suck his or her thumb, or talk out loud without permission.

• Weariness. A child may appear lethargic, especially toward the end of the school day, or show other signs of lack of sleep. A child who is feeling increased stress may have difficulty getting to sleep at night or staying asleep long enough.

• Moodiness. A child may have sudden changes of mood which cause changes in behavior. For example, a child who is smiling and talking one minute may abruptly become defensive and withdrawn. This may happen because an object or occurrence in the room has reminded the child of something unpleasant relating to the divorce, such as a fight between his or her parents or a conversation between relatives criticizing one of the parents.

• Withdrawal. Withdrawal is common among children in any kind of stressful situation. A child may fear saying something that will bring shame on the family or feel that most adults and classmates don't understand the problems of divorce. Such a child may virtually stop taking part in classroom activities.

• Declining grades. Stress can make it difficult even to start an assignment, much less finish it. Homework often takes a back seat in a home that a divorce has disrupted: Perhaps parents are busy working out their own problems, the child spends extended hours with babysitters, the child is excited about a visit to a parent, or parents are dating strangers. Although some children will channel stress into their schoolwork, many children in such a situation find doing schoolwork an impossible task.

• Acting out. A student who has traditionally been rather well behaved may suddenly become restless and aggressive. The student may pick at classmates until a small fight erupts. Tapping a pencil, moving chairs, roaming around the room, talking out, talking back, and destroying materials are other ways of acting out.

Generally, a child will start behaving this way before information about the divorce reaches the school. As unrest in the home increases, building up to the divorce proceedings in court, so may the child's acting out. Should the parents remain emotionally composed during the divorce (which is highly unlikely), so probably will the child.

• Physical complaints. A child may complain of headaches, stomachaches, backaches, sore muscles, rashes, sore eyes, tics—the list seems endless. If a physician can't find a physical cause, the pains probably are psychological in origin.

• No change. Some children have an incredible capacity to deal with frustration and stress. A teacher may find that a student's parents have just finished getting a divorce and the child never displayed the slightest sign of stress at school. Even so, such a child may be very confused and frustrated internally and may benefit from help as much as a student who shows signs of stress.

Not every child under stress from divorce will be able to see a counselor or therapist. Teachers may, however, be able to help children better understand and handle their feelings about their parents' divorce—especially those feelings that derive from lack of information about divorce, common reactions to it, and its role in contemporary American life.

A planned discussion in class can help children understand divorce better. Classroom discussions of divorce allow the child to see and hear what other children of divorced parents may feel, the problems others may be having because of their parents' divorce, and how others are handling such situations as visitations and holiday celebrations. They also allow the children whose parents have *not* been divorced to understand and learn about divorce and how it may be affecting their classmates.

Planning a discussion of divorce for all students may be beneficial, because left to chance the subject may never arise openly. Although most children want to know more about divorce, children rarely bring up the subject.

In children whose parents are divorced, this reluctance may have several causes. Often children don't understand how they feel. (Even adults may not understand their own feelings of joy, nervousness, anger, excitement, or depression.) Most children simply *feel*: They are not yet able to identify their feelings well enough to label and then discuss them.

Many children would be embarrassed to discuss their parents' divorce. Although divorce has become common, most children feel that they are the only ones who have divorced parents and that other children or adults will not understand their situation and their feelings. If divorce is never discussed in a classroom, two-thirds of the students might come from one-parent homes without any of the children realizing it. Children who think divorce makes them different from their classmates may make excuses for bringing only one parent to a conference or for making two sets of holiday presents for their parents.

Many children are reticent because they fear they will be punished for discussing their parents' divorce. Some parents tell their children not to talk about certain aspects of the divorce or not to talk about it at all. The children then fear that if they discuss divorce, the wrong thing will slip out and their parents will hear about it. To outsiders the information involved may be trivial, but to the child and the parents, it may be very important.

A few children, on the other hand, may not discuss their parents' divorce because they feel comfortable with it and have all the information they need.

Although children are often ready to discuss divorce if they don't have to bring up the subject, teachers themselves often hesitate to start such a discussion. For one thing, teachers may believe they lack the information to answer children's questions once the discussion gets going. Probably, however, they know more about divorce than they realize—and almost certainly more than the children know. The best thing to do when students raise questions is to answer them as accurately as possible with the information and time available and, if necessary, find further information to present another day.

Teachers may also avoid discussing divorce because they fear parents' disapproval. It is always wise to inform the principal of plans to hold discussions or give assignments on controversial topics. Teachers can set the stage by sending notes home to parents (all parents) with information about their

plans. Parents will probably not oppose a good program on divorce if they know ahead of time what it will include.

The age and general maturity of the students will determine the type and content of any class discussion of divorce. Kindergarten students may tell about a couple of events occurring during a separation or divorce but they seem to understand little of the mechanics of divorce. Most first and second graders will tell about certain important experiences but can also learn the basic facts about divorce by listening. Third, fourth, and fifth graders not only can share experiences and learn from oral explanations but also describe their reactions to events to their classmates.

Holding class discussions is not the only way teachers can help children adjust to stress caused by specific events like their parents' divorce. A few other methods are listed here.

• Identify problems. Teachers can begin by being on the lookout for signs of stress. Children seldom simply ask for help, so it is important for the adults around them to notice symptoms of their problems and seek appropriate help.

• Hold parent conferences. Teachers who recognize signs of stress may want to contact parents immediately to try to find the cause. Generally, if the teacher sees signs of stress at school, the parents see similar behavior at home. If the teacher makes no comments about problems at school, however, parents may think the behavior at home is not significant. A conference, then, could be very helpful to both teacher and parents, especially if both parents can attend.

• Talk to the child. Asking the child privately about his or her feelings about the divorce (or other problem) may elicit important information about the child's stress level. Children seldom volunteer such information, but they are generally willing to share their feelings if asked for them.

Sometimes a child will not identify the real problem. In that case it often helps if the teacher explains to the child the signs of stress he or she is showing. Helping identify the problem can be very helpful to the child as well as to the teacher and parents.

Not every child under stress from divorce will be able to see a counselor or therapist. Teachers may be able to help children better understand their feeling about their parents' divorce.

• Teach children the words to express feelings. Students may be having trouble identifying their feelings because they don't know the words to describe them. Out of the hundreds of words that describe different feelings, children are often unable to name more than a few.

• Keep literature available. Books and pamphlets about divorce should be in the school library and, if possible, in the classroom. So far as I know, little has been written for young children about divorce, but during the next few years my guess is that more and better books will be published on the subject.

• Use professional help. School psychologists, social workers, counselors, and other professionals can give advice and help in setting up class discussions on divorce. They can also help individual children better understand their parents' divorces.

• Encourage special programs. A school psychologist, school social worker, or counselor may be willing to start small group sessions for children of divorced parents. These groups can be most helpful to the children, providing counseling that teachers are unable to give in the classroom.

• Take time to learn more about divorce. The more teachers know about divorce, the more effective they will be in aiding their pupils. Time spent looking for books and articles about divorce is a good investment. Further, teachers can request in-service training or sessions at conferences or meetings on the subject.

• Show interest and concern. If a child asks a question about divorce or if the class is discussing the subject, teachers should share their knowledge freely, showing that there is nothing wrong with examining or expressing feelings about this subject. If the teacher becomes anxious and nervous when the topic arises, so will the children.

• Give time and understanding. The most important service a teacher can give a student is time and understanding when the student needs it. A child who can share an important feeling or experience with the teacher may be better able to return to, and think about, schoolwork. Some children carry the memory of some unpleasant experience with them for years. Having a chance to talk about that experience may remove the burden.

Teachers who try to help the children of divorced parents in their classrooms should be careful to avoid certain pitfalls. One danger is that discussion will bring indiscreet revelations from the pupils. A good discussion about divorce doesn't require description of the beating a child's alcoholic mother gave her husband or the intimate details of a father's relationship with his girl friend or a mother's with her boy friend.

Pushing children to talk also is undesirable. A child who is ready to discuss divorce usually will do so when given the opportunity.

Finally, although the classroom can give children an excellent chance to learn about divorce, it is not the proper place for in-depth therapy. Too much conversation on the topic can cause resentment and additional problems.

Children of divorced parents may bring many problems along when they come to school. Teachers can recognize these troubles and help the children learn to handle them. In so doing, they may increase their pupils' peace of mind and incidentally help improve their schoolwork. □

This article is drawn from a booklet Dr. Allers wrote for use in the Forest Hills Public Schools.

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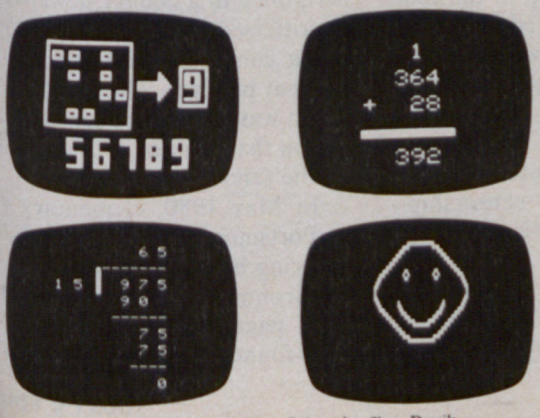

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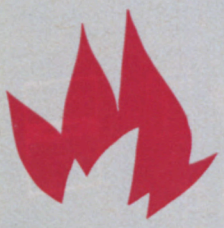

CENSORSHIP IN THE SCHOOLS: Something Old and Something New

The first public burning of a book in America took place in 1650, when Thomas Pynchon's *The Meritorious Price of Our Redemption* was set aflame in the Boston marketplace by the common executioner. In his book *The First Freedom,* Nat Hentoff recalls the reason given for that burning: "The author's religious ideas, declared the authorities, differed from the colony's established religion and so had to be obliterated."

The last public burning of a book in America (as of this writing) took place in 1977, when 40 copies of a textbook, *Values Clarification,* were burned in Warsaw, Indiana, by a group of senior citizens. The book (along with the high school course for which it was used) had to go, the group claimed, because it taught situation ethics, moral relativism, and secular humanism. They feared it would destroy home-taught values.

If a message is to be found in these two sad stories, perhaps it is this: Over centuries, though times and life-styles change and wars transform the political geography of the globe, the fundamental issues that divide one person from another remain much the same.

In 1977, as in 1650 and throughout the intervening years, supporters of some established version of morality and truth have condemned ideas they considered offensive and prohibited their utterance.

Book burnings in the public marketplace are not common occurrences. In public school classrooms and libraries, however, First Amendment rights are tenuous at best and often in conflict with other perceived rights. There, books, various other teaching materials, and entire courses of study are at all times vulnerable to the pressures of censorship. Probably at no time have the pressures been more severe than they are just now.

From the American Library Association (ALA), the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), newspapers, and teachers in all parts of the country come reports of angry citizens groups organizing to protest what they describe as the anti-Christian, anti-American, anti-authority, antifamily, pornographic influence of certain books and other instructional materials in the schools.

Judith Krug, director of the ALA's Office for Intellectual Freedom, estimates that between 1975 and 1980, three times as many censorship attempts were reported as in the preceding decade. She believes the cases that make the news don't begin to tell the whole story of censorship in the country today. Three hundred censorship controversies may be reported in a given year. Krug suggests that there may be 10 times as many instances of uncontested removal or restriction of library and classroom materials and an even quieter kind of censorship—avoidance of all materials that might be controversial.

Who are the censors? Anyone with enough authority is a potential censor. The list of those who can censor school materials is long.

School boards. In 1979, a high school principal in Matthews County, Virginia, told one of his history teachers to withdraw assignment of Huxley's *Brave New World.* When the teacher went ahead with the assignment, the school board notified him that his contract would not be renewed.

In January 1980, the North Jackson, Ohio, board of education ordered removal from the high school library shelves of seven books: *Catcher in the Rye, Go Ask Alice, Hooper, Manchild in the Promised Land, Slaughterhouse Five, To Sir with Love,* and *Up the Down Staircase.*

The Anaheim, California, school board has banned from the schools all of Shakespeare but *Hamlet* and *Romeo and Juliet* and all of Dickens except *Oliver Twist.*

School administrators. A high school principal in Knoxville, Tennessee, cancelled the school library's subscriptions to a county newspaper after it criticized the school's policy of taking a commission on the charges for student pictures. The principal said he felt it was his duty to censor any publication that was not in the best interests of the school.

In May 1980, elementary students in Portsmouth, Rhode Island, received coloring books (published by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency) with pages torn out. Their principal had found objectionable the portions

of the books that alluded to the dangers of overpopulation. The deleted pages warned that 4 billion people inhabit the earth and that overpopulation can lead to crowded neighborhoods, heavy traffic, and air and water pollution.

Teachers and librarians. A 1977 survey by the National Council of Teachers of English indicated that teachers accounted for nearly 7.5 percent and librarians for nearly 3 percent of censorship in public schools.

State education agencies. In 1976, the Texas State Textbook Commission banned five common dictionaries that contain allegedly obscene definitions—for example, a definition of *bed* as a verb. The banning was prompted by complaints presented by Norma Gabler, who, with her husband, regularly submits bills of particulars on objectionable portions of textbooks being considered for adoption. From their home in Longview, Texas, the Gablers operate Education Research Analysts, a tax-exempt organization that assists local censorship efforts. For a modest, tax-deductible contribution, they will send a file of textbook reviews that point out questionable items.

Textbook publishers. In 1974, violent book protest confrontations drew national attention to Kanawha County, West Virginia. The controversy heralded the current wave of censorship in the schools. In response, textbook publishers began to delete some of the

materials that they were just beginning to include in the texts—materials that portrayed, for the first time, the racial and cultural diversity of the nation and the perspectives and contributions of minorities and women.

In a recent *Sixty Minutes* appearance, several textbook publishers acknowledged that they have revised some of their publications to ensure that they will pass the Gablers' scrutiny.

State legislatures. In 1975 the Oregon legislature adopted a textbook selection guidelines law which included the following language: "No textbook shall be used which speaks slightingly of the founders of the republic or of those who preserved the union or which undervalues their work." Similar legislation has been introduced but not passed in several other states, including Indiana and Pennsylvania.

The U.S. Congress (potentially). In September 1979, Sen. Paul Laxalt (R.-Nev.) introduced S. 1808, the Family Protection Act. Equal Rights Amendment opponent Phyllis Schlafly hailed the bill as marking "the dawn of a new era in federal legislation . . . toward more family responsibility and less federal control and spending." The proposed legislation has an ironic twist: Right-wing forces traditionally oppose federal aid to public education and its alleged consequence—federal control. S. 1808, however, provides the incentive of federal money to induce public schools to comply with the provisions. If S. 1808 were to become law, any local or state agency that did not comply with its provisions would lose funds under all applicable federal programs.

Education issues comprise the major portion of the bill. Notably, it prohibits—

- Teaching of any course of instruction "seeking to inculcate values or modes of behavior which contradict the demonstrated belief and values of the community."
- Use of any educational materials that would "tend to denigrate, diminish, or deny the role differences between the sexes as it [sic] has been historically understood in the United States."

The bill also supports school prayer and private education and attacks equal opportunity for young women in athletics, agency shop for teachers, and the nondiscrimination requirement for federal aid recipients.

Democracy Demands Free Teachers

Any system of government that aspires to the democratic ideal places a heavy burden of responsibility upon the people it is established to serve. The burden is actually far heavier than under a totalitarian government, whether communist or fascist in nature. The totalitarian system may require hard work and material sacrifice, but it makes virtually no demands on the intellect of its citizens. In fact, it discourages independent thought in favor of blind obedience and loyalty.

In contrast, the democratic system demands of the individual the ability to reason, to analyze and relate data. The citizen must make informed and intelligent choices at the ballot box and in the marketplace and must see through a deceptive façade—whether a contrived political image or a specious television sales pitch.

I believe that a fundamental purpose of public school education is to teach students the processes of data gathering and intellectual analysis, so that as adults they will be able to make rationally based decisions. This, I believe, is as basic and essential a purpose of education as is the teaching of the basic survival skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

The development of an adult generation of critically thinking, informed citizens is fundamental to the survival of our system of government—and indeed of far more than that. The choices facing today's youth—who will be the nation's leaders during the twenty-first century—will be life-or-death choices. They will determine whether the peoples of the earth can live together in peace or whether they will destroy the human race through warfare or through ruining our natural environment.

If we, as teachers, are to help prepare children to face these challenges, we must be free to inform them honestly of the history of this nation and others. We must be free to provide them with a vast diversity of literature, classical and contemporary, according to their level of maturity. Only then can they understand and appreciate the many cultures, races, and ethnic groups that comprise the society of humans on this earth.

Those who seek to suppress free inquiry in our public schools—ideologues of the radical right—would impose upon teachers dangerous restrictions. Beyond teaching the rote skills, the censors would have us confine ourselves to—

- Teaching an idealized, Dick-and-Jane version of American history, ignoring what minorities and women have contributed to our society and what they have suffered from it.
- Teaching a myopic, tunnel-vision perspective on the world that ignores the fact that other peoples, cultures, and ways of life have validity, have dignity, and deserve our respect.
- Teaching a bowdlerized version of literature, excluding much that is most beautiful and all that is most intellectually provocative.
- Teaching a chauvinism that admits no blemish in our economic system or our system of justice and encourages disdain for all who are poorer or weaker than ourselves and are unable to compete successfully.

We will not yield to these contemptible demands of the right-wing critics and would-be censors of education.

I hope that the people of this country will similarly never yield to the political grouping that calls itself the New Right. For the censors and the right-wing politicos work toward the same goal: a world in which a privileged few hold all the wealth and power and those who have less are pitted against one another in mutual hostility and self-defeat.

—Willard McGuire, *NEA President.*

Who's pressuring for censorship?

An irate citizen storms into the educator's office, demanding that a "subversive" textbook be censored. An equally angry visitor insists that "money is being spent foolishly." A group descends upon the superintendent to plead for a "return" to the three R's. A minister lambastes the schools from his pulpit, while a politician builds his criticism into his platform. Patriotic organizations bemoan the lack of fundamental Americanism, and college professors decry the lack of fundamental learning.

Not only is American education under fire; the practice of criticizing our schools is well on its way to becoming a national pastime. For some, it is already a favorite armchair sport. For others, it has become a full-time career.

PEANUTS
WHY WOULD THEY BAN MISS SWEETSTORY'S BOOK FROM THE SCHOOL LIBRARY?
I CAN'T BELIEVE IT.. I JUST CAN'T BELIEVE IT!
MAYBE THERE ARE SOME THINGS IN HER BOOK THAT WE DON'T UNDERSTAND...
IN THAT CASE, THEY SHOULD ALSO BAN MY MATH BOOK!

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That account might have been written yesterday, but it wasn't. It is, in fact, the opening paragraph of a book published 18 years ago, *The Axe-Grinders* by Mary Anne Raywid. Its analysis of the organized patterns of right-wing extremist criticism of the schools is as timely today as it was in 1962.

This is not to say that all criticism of the schools is organized, right-wing in origin, or unjustified. It would be absurd to claim that mistakes are never made in the selection of instructional materials or the shaping of educational programs and methods. Reasonable, constructive criticism is necessary to ensure that schools remain accountable to the people and to help them do a better job.

Not all attempts at censorship, furthermore, come from right-wing extremists. Efforts by minorities and women to remove such books as *Little Black Sambo* or *Mary Poppins* from school libraries are efforts to censor. On the other hand, those same groups often try to persuade schools and textbook publishers to provide books that treat women and minorities fairly and that include their contributions to and viewpoints on history. Such efforts seem to be just the opposite of censorship; they seek fairness and honesty, not exclusion.

At present, in fact, the schools are the target of criticism and pressure from many segments of the population. In his 1976 book, *Values in Education*, Max Lerner analyzes this dilemma:

> Curiously, the people in the society expect the school to act as the final fortress, remaining firm even as the cracks are opening up in the society around it. The fact is that the family, the churches, the neighborhood, the community, the party system, the class and ethnic systems, the legal and sexual codes, the value system, have all been subjected to an intensive battering. So have the schools. Yet with a real confusion about what the schools can and can't do, many people expect them to assume the burdens which the other institutions have faltered in bearing.

Such times are the most hospitable to the demagoguery of the radical right. Confused people often look for simple answers. Frustrated and angry people look for something or someone to blame. People suffering the trauma of rapid, unsettling change tend to look nostalgically to the past.

When the civil rights movement gathered momentum in the early 1960's, many Americans were confused and fearful for a variety of reasons. The right-wing extremists were ready then with simple answers, easy culprits, and "good old days" solutions.

At the peak of the civil rights movement in the later 1960's and during the antiwar and student rights movements of the late 1960's and early 1970's, the voices of the right were muffled.

Over the past five years, however, those voices have returned in full force. They offer the schools as a scapegoat for much of what is wrong with our society, offer the "good old days" solution of censorship for what is wrong with the schools.

The targets of the censors today are similar to those of two decades ago. Prominent on their hit lists are materials by or about minorities and women; about the problems of poverty; or about cultures that differ markedly from that of White, middle-class Americans.

Sex education remains a major concern of the censors. The *Family Issues Voting Index*, a rating of Congress published by the Christian Voters' Victory Fund, complains that—

> We know that love and sex should be taught in the home, accompanied by Biblical values and genuine compassionate guidance. But we allowed our schools to become smut factories, our textbooks sexbooks.

Teachers themselves are a central target of censors who call their competence and good faith into question. The censors allege that instead of teaching Johnny to read, teachers are clarifying his values; instead of teaching students to respect flag, God, and family, they are indoctrinating them into a "religion" called *secular humanism*.

Any teaching that encourages children to value human beings, their different cultures, beliefs, ways of life; any teaching of how human cultures developed on the earth or, indeed, of how life developed on the earth is considered the teaching of secular humanism. Some fundamentalist and right-wing groups maintain that secular humanism is a religion so they can argue that curricular areas they dislike are unconstitutional. The First Amendment mandate that our country have no officially supported religion prohibits the propagation of religion in public schools.

The censors of the radical right have many other concerns: not only what they want out of the schools, but what they want in—for example, prayer, the teaching of the creationist theory of how life developed on earth if the theory of evolution is taught, and the teaching of unquestioning loyalty to the free enterprise system and to the values of the Judeo-Christian tradition.

In general, the right-wing critics of education are moving in the same directions they have moved in the past.

But in 1980, they are moving with new confidence.

The renewed vitality of right-wing censors today comes from the company they keep. Some of their associates are such men as Paul Weyrich, Richard Viguerie, and Howard Phillips, leaders of the ultra-right political apparatus headquartered in Washington, DC, that is known as the New Right. Others are electronic preacher/politicians such as the Rev. Jerry Falwell, a Baptist minister from Lynchburg, Virginia, who has broadcast from coast to coast the message that "we must bring immoral public education to its knees." Falwell heads Moral Majority, a coalition dedicated to

> mobilizing the grass roots of America . . . lobbying intensively in Congress . . . helping the moral majority of America fight obscene school textbooks. . . . and recruiting and training moral American men and women for political office.

Rev. Falwell's *Old Time Gospel Hour* finances his projects with the $1 million a week it reportedly produces from his television congregations.

The censorship battles that teachers are confronting in school systems around the country are no isolated academic concern. Censorship activity is no longer the work of a few fanatics but an important tool in the political power plays of the radical right.

Such people as Mel and Norma Gabler, the textbook critics of Longview, Texas—even such men as the Rev. Jerry Falwell—are not at the center of New Right organization and influence. But theirs are the issues that give life to this movement. Through them the New Right hopes to translate its own political and economic agenda into the nation's political and economic agenda.

The ethics of the New Right's use of family issues to engage the attention and support of the American people is dubious. Certainly such use obstructs rational public discussion of important matters that require reasoned examination and debate.

Teachers and their organizations need to confront some serious issues in public education:

- Tax support of the schools
- The balancing of student rights, parent rights, and professional rights in the selection of instructional materials and development of educational programs
- How far First Amendment protections extend into the public school classroom, the school library, the public library.

Teachers and school administrators need to listen, too, to the legitimate concerns and criticisms of parents—conservatives, moderates, and liberals. The sound and fury raised by the extremist school critics stifles reasonable debate and threatens to place teachers in the position of retreat and self-defense.

Teachers and their advocates must recognize demagoguery for what it is and refuse to let it cut them off from attending to the real needs of parents and students.

—**Dorothy C. Massie,** *NEA Teacher Rights.*

NEA RESOLUTIONS

Selection of Materials and Teaching Techniques

The National Education Association believes that decisions on which school learning experiences and teaching techniques will develop a student's talents are best made by a teacher who knows the learner. Teaching quality depends on freedom to make such decisions. Teachers must select instructional materials without censorship. Challenges of the choice of instructional materials must be orderly and objective, under procedures mutually adopted by professional associations and school boards.

The Association urges its affiliates to seek the removal of laws and regulations which restrict the selection of a diversity of instructional materials or which limit educators in the selection of such materials.

Cultural Diversity in Instructional Materials and Processes

The National Education Association believes that educational materials and processes should portray our cultural diversity and the contributions of ethnic minority groups. Ethnic minority teachers must be involved in selecting educational materials and in preparing teachers in their use.

The Association recognizes that additional instructional materials chosen for classrooms and libraries may rightfully contain a number of points of view to allow students to become familiar with the attitude and recommendations from various segments of the literary world. The Association also acknowledges that many contemporary texts related to ethnic minority groups do not portray realistically their life-styles but convey a negative self-concept to ethnic minority students.

The Association believes that educators should adopt and use only those basal texts and other educational materials that include accurate portrayals of the role of ethnic minorities in the past, present, and future educational processes.

Academic Freedom

The National Education Association believes that academic and professional freedom is essential to the teaching profession. Controversial issues should be a part of instructional programs when judgment of the professional staff deems the issues appropriate to the curriculum and to the maturity level of the student. Academic freedom is the right of the learner and his/her teachers to explore, present, and discuss divergent points of view in the quest for knowledge and truth.

Professional freedom includes the teacher's right to evaluate, to criticize, and to advocate his/her personal point of view concerning the policies and programs of the schools. The teacher also has the right to assist colleagues when their academic or professional freedom is violated.

Extremist Groups

The National Education Association is concerned about the emergence and resurgence of extremist groups.

The Association strongly believes that our nation's children must be educated to understand and respect cultural, ethnic, religious, and other individual differences, the rights of others, and the importance of these to a healthy pluralistic democracy.

The Association condemns the philosophy and practices of extremist groups and their efforts to recruit young people in our schools, and it urges all its affiliates and members to oppose actively all such movements whose objectives are inimical to the ideals of the Association.

Frankly Speaking

In-Service Isn't Really Education

Many teachers have no respect for in-service programs, and we have some good reasons for our attitude. Consider some common defects of in-service education programs.

First of all, administrators usually plan in-service programs to meet teachers' needs as the administrators perceive them. Teachers cannot be committed to in-service training if they have no share in deciding what it is to be.

Many states do require school systems to administer a needs assessment to teachers, parents, and students before holding in-service programs. Too often, however, this does not actually take place. Instead—

- In-service planners include teachers after the logistics have been settled,
- Planners choose passive individuals who will not rock the boat to represent teachers in planning in-service programs, or
- Planners exclude teachers entirely from the planning.

Is this teacher involvement?

Planners of in-service programs need to take into consideration teachers' specific grade level assignments, proficiencies or deficiencies in basic skills, and years of experience, as well as the learning environment necessary to make the most of teachers' capabilities. A needs assessment would give them the information they need.

A second aspect of in-service education that concerns and frustrates teachers is the quality of the presentations. Teachers often say an in-service program was boring, a waste of time, ill-prepared, unrealistic, just more theory.

Currently the staffs of most in-service programs come from local colleges or from the administrative staffs of local school systems. They often recite theories and describe the experiences of others. Teachers would like presentations by leaders and trainers who are also successful classroom practitioners.

By using the expertise of teachers, a program can give credibility to new ideas that the participants might otherwise consider unrealistic. Teachers relate to new methods, materials, and programs that are practical and have worked for other teachers.

A third cause of discontent with in-service programs is the practice of scheduling them at the end of the day or on Saturday morning. How can teachers enjoy or receive maximum benefit from in-service programs held at those times?

An average day in the life of a teacher includes many different tasks such as disciplining a disruptive child; filling out attendance cards and/or registers; performing bus duty, hall duty, lunch duty, breakfast duty; teaching table manners; holding conferences with parents; filling the hall bulletin board; counseling an abused child; refereeing a fight; grading papers; completing paperwork for administrative personnel or doctoral students; keeping an updated class folder for each child; requisitioning instructional supplies; and, last but not least, teaching. Yet many school systems expect teachers to participate wholeheartedly in an in-service program at the end of such a day.

Like the schools, industry trains its employees for professional growth. Industry, however, provides appropriate conditions for learning. Employees do not receive training about a new product or selling technique at the end of a work day. Perhaps the schools should consider using industrial approaches, such as practitioner-taught programs and released time for a full or half day.

Providing these alternatives would be expensive. Before judging them unfeasible, however, the schools should examine the long-range benefits they may bring. Better teaching means better learning for students.

My fourth objection to current in-service programs is that they deny evaluation the attention it deserves. The checklists commonly used for evaluation seem to be designed to assure workshop leaders that programs have been beneficial. They come, furthermore, at the wrong time. Evaluation done before teachers try out their new knowledge in the classroom cannot be accurate.

Teachers are actively concerned about their professional growth. They have demonstrated their capabilities in this area on professional standards commissions, professional practices commissions, and boards of education as well as in state legislatures. They become passive, however, when they are treated as though they were incapable of making those decisions that directly affect their lives.

To those who are directly responsible for designing and administering in-service programs, I say—the time to change is now. Teachers' renewed sense of professionalism will not permit them to accept without question in-service programs that are paternalistically designed and carried out. □

By JOAN Y. POLITE
Seventh Grade Teacher, Peeples Street Elementary School, Atlanta, Georgia.

This is one of a series of articles written by classroom teachers on their pet peeves in the classroom. Today's Education *encourages other teachers to submit manuscripts that would be appropriate in the series.*

Meet Patricia Vance

The Toronto, Ontario, schools offer secondary school students specialized programs, as do many big-city systems in the United States. Entrance to secondary schools, however, is not automatic. The conclusion of the eighth year of school marks a critical time in the education of young people in Toronto. Promotion to the secondary level is by the explicit decision of their teachers and principals. Students who are promoted may choose from among academic, technical, and commercial secondary programs. The 20 percent of an age group who are not promoted have the limited options of attending either vocational or occupational schools.

Lawrence Park Collegiate Institute is one of Toronto's 12 academic high schools. Some 1,100 university-bound students in grades 9 through 13 attend the school. (Grade 13, a vestige of the British sixth form, is necessary for entrance to a four-year university in Ontario but not for high school graduation.)

Located in a residential section of North Toronto, the school has a

Patricia Vance (second from left) meets with a group of her students.

three-story, red-brick building that dates back to the 1930's. As part of Today's Education's *continuing series of interviews with teachers, Nancy Needham of the editorial staff visited Lawrence Park and talked to faculty member Patricia Vance.*

Ms. Vance began her school career as a teacher of French and Latin. Since 1973, however, she has been in charge of Lawrence Park's resource room program that helps learning disabled students cope with the demands of a highly academic curriculum. Her husband, Bruce, is an English consultant with the Toronto school board. They met early in their careers at a Latin Department meeting; they live with their two sons in a North Toronto neighborhood not far from Lawrence Park.

When did you decide you wanted to be a teacher? Were you a college student at the time?

No, I was still in high school. I went to a girls summer camp and later became a counselor there. It was really that initial informal teaching experience that hooked me. I enjoy watching people learn, and I like learning things myself. Being a resource room teacher is ideal, because I have to be familiar with the entire curriculum. Consequently, I'm always having to learn things.

After high school I entered the University of Toronto. I took an honors course in Latin and French, with Greek on the side. An honors degree—which means taking a four-year as opposed to a three-year course and achieving at least minimum grades in all major courses—is a prerequisite for being a specialist high school teacher.

Did it take you four years to prepare for secondary teaching?

Four years at the University, studying Latin and French and Greek, and one year more of teacher training in its Faculty of Education.

Up until the early 1970's, the model of teacher training in Ontario had been university first, teacher training in the year after. York University, which is a relatively new institution in Toronto, now offers the kind of program you have in the States, where you do education and a B.S. or a B.A. at the same time—except that York still requires five years to do the combined course.

Did you then get a master's?

I didn't do a master's then; I wanted to get to work right away. Later, dur-

ing the 1960's, I stayed home with my two sons for eight years. When they were both in school full-time, I decided to go back to work. But I didn't think anybody would want to hire me because I'd been messing around with diapers for eight years, so it was really a feeling of inferiority that drove me back to do a classics M.A. part time.

How did you shift from teaching languages to teaching the learning disabled?

I started the second phase of my teaching career as a Latin and French teacher at Northern Secondary School, which is the closest thing to a comprehensive school that exists in Toronto. As it happened, a resource room for the learning disabled had opened there the year before. I was interested in it because one of my sons had been in a program for kids with learning disabilities in elementary school, and I felt grateful for the help he had received.

I kept an eye on the program and got to know the teachers who worked in it. In the spring of the second year, I asked them what I would have to do to qualify to work in their program. It happened that one of them was pregnant, so they said, Why don't you come and work with us now? So I did. I didn't start my formal training until the same year I started the job.

Our older son, however, had taught me quite a bit at home about taking different approaches with kids who learn differently from regular students. Also, I had by that time joined the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities, which has its headquarters in the United States, and had gone to their conferences. Consequently, I had some idea about the field I would be entering.

How is education for the learning disabled and others with handicaps organized in Toronto?

There are special schools under a metropolitan-wide school board for the blind, the deaf, the trainable retarded, those with severe language handicaps. Then, for less handicapped students, the local area boards provide programs that operate like my resource room—taking kids out of regular classrooms for part of a day. There are also segregated, self-contained classrooms of six to 16 students at the elementary level. The rationale for these small classes is that the teacher will be able to speed up the rate at which the children acquire the skills they will need to work independently in a regular classroom. That's our general aim: to help children move toward independence.

> In the Toronto area, problems are more severe in the suburbs than in the city.

Is there concern that certain groups in the population—perhaps the immigrants or "New Canadians" as they are called—are disproportionately represented in these programs?

The Toronto School Board trustees have examined special education for the last three years because of this concern that poor children and children with New Canadian backgrounds will get channeled into special education classes and from there into lower-achieving high school streams.

Mainstreaming is one way to avoid such channeling. A pilot program will begin next fall, in which eight elementary schools across the city will take slow learners who have been in segregated classes and integrate them into regular classes. The pilot schools were carefully chosen so that the regular staff will have positive attitudes toward accepting these kids. The teachers who would have had the children in the segregated classes will act as consultants to the regular teachers.

It sounds as though you are moving in Toronto toward putting handicapped children in the "least restrictive environment," which, as I'm sure you know, is required in the United States by PL 94-142 [The Education for All Handicapped Children Act]. Do practices like this spread to Canada from the United States?

There is a definite influence. The phrase, "least restrictive environment," has long been in use here, although there is neither federal nor Ontario legislation making it official policy.

In general, the provincial ministries of education—especially the officials who write curriculum guidelines—play a major role in spreading American and British practices here. These officials go to conferences in the States and Britain and read professional journals from both countries. British authorities on education are invited to the English-speaking provinces to visit schools and to give in-service sessions. In the teaching of English, for example, British ideas are taken more seriously than American ones.

Has the Ontario Teachers' Federation [OTF] actively pushed for better education programs for the handicapped?

Yes, that's how I got actively involved in OTF. In 1970, a federal commission published a report called *One Million Children*, which described the different kinds of emotional and learning difficulties that children across Canada had and estimated how many there were with each. After that report came out, the OTF decided to appoint a committee to follow up the report in Ontario. Three years later, I was asked to represent the secondary school teachers on that committee.

The year after I went on the committee, there was new education legislation in Ontario and a new set of regulations to accompany it. The regulation that dealt with special education classes was supposed to establish limits on the size of self-contained special ed classes. About a month before the regulations were to become final, the president of the Federation discovered that the section on special ed had been radically altered. There were no longer limits by law on the numbers of kids who could be put into special ed classes. The Federation foresaw that because of some administrative problem, for example, teachers could have their classes overloaded. That would make an impossible situation both for them and for students. I was one of the people who ended up with the job of fighting the Ontario Ministry of Education to get them to change the regu-

ation. Fortunately, we were successful.

You were a lobbyist on that issue?

Yes. I did more lobbying after that. The Council for Exceptional Children here in Ontario came out in favor of establishing by law the right to education for all children regardless of their handicap—essentially with the same intent as your PL 94-142. That commitment does not yet exist here in black and white, either in law or regulations.

I think one of the most important things I did when I worked for the Federation was to persuade the Federation's Board of Governors to endorse that policy. As a result of similar efforts by both teacher and parent groups, a bill to establish mandatory education programs for all handicapped was introduced in the Ontario legislature last spring.

PL 94-142 is, of course, a federal program in the United States. Is your federal government likely to get involved in education of the handicapped?

No. Canadian education is exclusively a provincial responsibility. The federal government does give grants to fund specific programs—for example, French instruction for English speakers.

Do school boards that apply for federal funds have to meet federal guidelines to qualify?

Not that I know of.

What percentage of elementary-secondary expenditures are federal? The U.S. figure is 7 or 8 percent.

I don't think there is a Canadian figure, because federal involvement is so spasmodic.

Do teachers in Canada have the right to strike?

With education a function of the provincial governments, there isn't any federal law on the subject of teacher strikes. In 1975, the Ontario legislature passed Bill 100, which gave teachers in the province the right to strike.

At that time, secondary school teachers in Metro Toronto—about 8,000 in all—saw themselves slipping behind in salary. We had no cost-of-living allowance. We wanted to include working conditions, such as class size, in addition to economic issues in our negotiations. We had gone through all the channels and tried everything else but a strike, so in November 1975, soon after Bill 100 was passed, we voted overwhelmingly to go out on strike.

How long did the strike last?

About two months, from November to January. At about the same time, the federal government introduced anti-inflationary measures, including wage and price controls. So there we were—left on the street—wondering how the federal legislation would affect our stand, because we wanted a raise that was much higher than would be allowed.

The impasse was complete. Arbitrators were supposed to bring the two sides together, but it just didn't work. We ended up being legislated back to work by the Ontario Parliament. Of course, there was a lot of bitter feeling. We felt that we had been victimized by the federal legislation. People are just now, five years later, getting over it.

Were you able to get any of the things you wanted?

We did have some cost-of-living allowance built into the contract, but we didn't get class size accepted as a negotiable issue.

What is the typical class size here in each kind of secondary school?

In the core academic subjects—English, math, history, etc.—classes are supposed to have the same number of students, 23 to 27, regardless of what type of school they are in. But if scheduling constraints mean a class has to have 40 students, there is no law or regulation that forbids it.

As you were getting to be the OTF's specialist on special education, you were transferred from Northern Secondary to Lawrence Park. Were you the first teacher of the learning disabled at this school?

Yes. Both schools are in the same attendance area. Before 1973, students who were perfectly capable of doing all the advanced courses at Lawrence Park but who had specific learning problems had to attend Northern Secondary School if they wanted to participate in the learning disabilities program. In 1973, the school board sent me over from Northern so that kids who were qualified to go to this school wouldn't have to go elsewhere just for the sake of the one program.

What do you see as your basic function in an academic school?

My function is to help students with learning disabilities to fill in the learning gaps that remain from elementary school and at the same time to support them in their regular subject areas. I try to combine these two functions, the remedial and the tutorial, so that students are learning content from their regular subject classes and at the same time are improving their reading or computation skills, their problem-solving or note-taking skills or whatever.

How many students do you work with in one classroom period?

Three or four students per period, but I work with another teacher and an aide.

What's the hardest task this school asks learning disabled youngsters to do?

The hardest thing that high school students with specific learning problems have to do is to get it all together—study habits, organization. The specific disabilities vary from student to student. For instance, some are poor listeners who would be better off if

The hardest thing that students with learning problems have to do is get it all together—study habits, organization.

they could rely on a textbook to nail down the knowledge they have to acquire.

Most teachers use a wide variety of teaching approaches, but they do have preferences and we get to know what these are. When we schedule our students at the end of August, we try to match teaching style and learning style. This way there are fewer personality clashes, because teachers and students tend to be on the same wave length. We also try to make sure not to overload a class with kids we know have specific problems.

Tell me what you would do with a student who had information in his or her head but could not write it down in an essay.

Today, just before you arrived, I was working with a grade 12 student who has that problem on an art history essay. With three different books and his notes from class on his lap, he told me his views on the Rococo style. I typed his words onto a piece of paper, and by the end of the period we had a tiny but complete essay.

Will he ever be able to sit down at the typewriter and do that himself?

He will never be able to do it as well as somebody who does it easily.

A former student of mine at Northern who has this same problem is now in his third year at York University. He still insists on writing his exams in the usual way, with no extra time allotment and no other compensation for his disability. He *could* tape his essays and have them transcribed by somebody else, but he insists on being judged in the same way as his classmates. Consequently, instead of getting A's, he gets C's.

You have taught at both Northern Secondary, a comprehensive school, and at Lawrence Park, an academic one. Do you feel that youngsters at Northern had morale problems because they thought they were in a second-best place?

Within the school, morale was terrific. The school was organized for the benefit of the kids. It drew people from all over the city because it had a combination of courses that existed in no other single school. But even though the kids didn't feel they were second-class citizens, it was a different story when you talked to people in the community who didn't have children there or who, for example, worked in a social agency that made them perceive Northern students as problem kids.

Among young people, however, any notion that Lawrence Park is up and Northern Secondary down comes only from this end. Northern Secondary students see Lawrence Park as the place where those people go who are maybe a little too conscious of social status. Still, many families have children in both schools. One son will go to Northern and the other will come here, and they still speak!

How about discipline? Do the types of schools differ on that? Do Canadians perceive their discipline problems to be as serious as we think ours are in the States?

Generally, our problems don't seem to be as severe. What difficulties there are seem to depend on a school's size and location. Northern, for example, has twice as many students as Lawrence. Because students there aren't as likely to be known to each other or to faculty by name, the atmosphere tends to be more impersonal, and staff are likely to take a tougher line on infractions, such as being in the halls during class.

In the Toronto area, my impression is that problems are more severe in the suburbs than in the central city. Perhaps one reason for this is that low-cost housing has been put up in the suburbs rather than downtown, while upper income people are buying and renovating houses in the city and sending their children to the public schools.

Getting back to the Ontario Teachers' Federation, does it support political candidates?

No, but some of its member federations do.

What are they?

There are five of them. The Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation (OSSTF) is the one I belong to. Then there are two associations for public elementary school teachers, one for men and one for women; an association for teachers in the English-speaking Catholic schools; and an association for teachers in French-speaking schools, both public and separate [Roman Catholic].

OSSTF does endorse candidates. In the Toronto area, there are a series of political action committees within OSSTF districts. They submit questionnaires to candidates for school boards and for the Ontario Parliament, and endorse those who support the policies of the OSSTF—regardless of what party they belong to. The committees don't actively campaign for the candidates, however. None of the Ontario teachers' federations—at any level—has ever endorsed candidates in federal elections.

Did those five provincial federations come together to form the OTF?

Yes. They got the Ontario Parliament to pass a law—the Teaching Profession Act of 1944—which created the OTF. OTF represents the interests of the Ontario teachers with the provincial government and its agencies. The 1944 law requires teachers to belong to OTF and to one of the affiliates and provides for mandatory deduction of dues from their paychecks.

As we are taping, somebody has just congratulated you for winning an archery tournament last night. Are you the girls' archery coach here?

Yes, and I coach the boys, too. Three or four years ago, I decided to gear down my extracurricular activities. Archery was something I thought I could limit to one month a year from 8 till 9 in the morning. But then the passion developed. . . .

To win?

Not to win so much as to watch the kids get such a kick out of the sport that they continue it after they're through with school. It's nice to win, of course; it gives the kids a momentary lift in ego. But when I watch kids grab hold of a bow—hardly able to wait to start shooting—and when they buy their own equipment and start shooting on the outskirts of the city in the summertime, that turns me on. I think to myself: These kids have found something they can enjoy at 65, and that's far more meaningful than competition.

What about what they do in your resource room—do you think that will help them find enjoyable things to do between now and age 65?

I hope kids will learn to enjoy the process of acquiring knowledge and skills. To play with the archery analogy a bit—the range of goals in the classroom is certainly broader than in archery. Maybe my job is to help kids with learning disabilities hit the right targets successfully. □

LIFE ON THE MISSISSIPPI

An educational guide to the PBS television presentation which will air Monday, November 24 at 8:00 PM ET. The air date and time of PBS broadcasts varies from station to station. Please check your local listings to confirm date/time in your area.

Prepared by Prime Time School Television

This material is made possible by John Deere Company/Exxon Corporation

Consultant to the Guide: Dr. Walter Blair, Professor Emeritus, Department of English, University of Chicago.

Life On The Mississippi is a graphic story about the part a beguiling young man played in navigating "The Father of Waters" during a momentous era when river steamboat traffic played a crucial role in shaping American history.

The Mississippi River is a main conduit in and out of the interior of America. It binds the country together as it carries people and cargo across the length of the nation. But, the River is more than an impressive waterway. It is entwined with the country's history and development. By studying the role the River has played in the nation's growth, students can gain a unique and interesting perspective on some important eras in American history.

Many people who have never seen the Mississippi can still conjure up distinct images of steamboats laden with cotton, corn, and gamblers booming down the River. Many of these images emanate from their reading Mark Twain. Twain captured the look and feel of life on the Mississippi in the 1800's so perfectly that his Mississippi, the Mississippi of the flush steamboat days, is what most people imagine when they hear the River mentioned. The River flows through some of Twain's best work, such as *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer.* Yet *Life on the Mississippi* is the only book of his in which the Mississippi is the central topic.

This teacher guide provides study materials to be used in conjunction with the November 24 Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) presentation of ***Life On The Mississippi,*** which is based on Chapters IV-XX of Mark Twain's book. This special broadcast is part of *The Great Performance* series.

The guide contains background material divided into four sections: "Geography and Explorers," "Boats on the Mississippi," "Life on the Mississippi," and "Mark Twain." Study questions and suggested activities follow each section of the guide. In addition, a bibliography of suggested readings is included at the end of each section. A letter to parents is also appended to the guide. It encourages them to join their children in learning from, and enjoying, *Life on the Mississippi.*

Geography and Explorers

The Mississippi River is one of the dominant geographical features of North America. The River is 2,350 miles long from its source in northern Minnesota to its muddy mouth at the Gulf of Mexico. With its tributaries, among them the Missouri, the Wisconsin, the Illinois, and the Ohio, it constitutes a river system more than twice as large as any other in the United States. The River and its tributaries irrigate one-eighth of the North American continent, including parts of 31 states, and thereby, creating some of the richest farmland in the world.

The Mississippi has also been important to American history: the abundance of the Mississippi River Valley provided a home for Indian tribes before Europeans even arrived in what is today the United States. To explorers, the River opened up huge parts of the North American Continent, enabling them to travel deep into its interior; to settlers, the River was both a means of transportation and the jumping-off point for their travel into lands west of the Mississippi. From about 1830 to 1860, the River was in its glory years, carrying a rich variety of riverboat people, including Mark Twain, up and down its length. To understand the history of the River, it is helpful to go back to its discovery.

In the 1500's, the Europeans began to explore the interior of North America. They were motivated by dreams and tales of fabulous treasures. Stories of unimaginable wealth reached Hernando de Soto, veteran Spanish explorer and in 1533 governor of Cuba. De Soto mounted an expedition, and in 1539, he landed in Tampa Bay (Florida) with more than 700 men and the determination to seize all the treasure he could carry. Plundering his way across the Southeast, de Soto reached the Mississippi in May of 1541. With a third of his men dead, he decided to winter near what is now Natchez, Mississippi. He died there on the banks of the Mississippi. (Twain wrote, "When de Soto found it, he was not hunting for a river, and he had no present occasion for one; consequently, he did not value it or even take any particular notice of it.")

Disappointed by the failure of de Soto's expedition and that of Francis Coronado, a contemporary of de Soto's, to find a new El Dorado, Spain lost interest in exploring the North American interior. The River would flow untraveled by Europeans for another century.

The second documented discovery of the Mississippi by a European was made by Louis Joliet, a native-born Canadian, who set out in 1673 to open new trade routes and to discover whether a waterway led to the Pacific. Joliet was accompanied by Father Jacques Marquette, a Jesuit whose mission was to convert new souls among the Indians.

Joliet and Marquette descended by canoe from Lake Michigan to the Fox River to the Wisconsin. On June 17, 1673, they entered the Mississippi. The two paddled

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as far south as Arkansas where they learned from Indians that they were within 10 days' journey to the sea where they would find other white men. Realizing that the Indians were referring to Spaniards, then enemies of the French, the explorers turned back upstream and headed home.

The French had now mapped the River, and they set out to capitalize on their knowledge. in 1672, Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle, among others, set out to establish a string of fur trading posts along the Mississippi. This gave the French a monopoly on trade in the interior and a huge advantage over the British colonies established on the East Coast of North America. Louis XIV eventually appointed La Salle commander of all territory between the Illinois River and the mouth of the Mississippi, but the French would rule the Mississippi for only about 80 years.

After the American Revolution, settlers moved westward in ever increasing numbers. The new residents along the Mississippi resented French control of the River and the seaport of New Orleans. In 1803, Thomas Jefferson sent agents to Napoleon Bonaparte to negotiate for the sale of New Orleans, and to everyone's surprise, Napoleon offered to sell the whole Louisiana Territory, most of the land between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains. The Americans eagerly accepted this offer at the bargain price of $15 million, and the Mississippi became an American River.

Questions and Activities

1. Discuss the economic and geographic importance of the Mississippi River to the United States.
2. Draw a map of the Mississippi plotting its course across America.
3. Research the geological origins of the Mississippi River.
4. The Mississippi was, for a time, the demarcation line for the westward expansion. Like other frontiers, its conquest gave birth to new words in our vocabulary. Cite some of these words or phrases. (Some are Indian names.) Have other frontiers, such as outer space, spawned the addition of new words to our language?
5. Compare the history of the towns and cities in the Mississippi Valley to the history of other cultures that have grown up around rivers. For example: the Egyptians and the Nile, the Babylonians and the Euphrates, and the Chinese and the Yangtze.
6. Research the Indian tribes that lived along the Mississippi. What were their cultures like? Students might look into the historical background of Starved Rock and where it got its name; the Mound Builders; Tecumseh and the War of 1812; and the Black Hawk War of 1832.
7. Research and report on the first European explorers of the Mississippi. Be sure to include Father Jacques Marquette and Louis Joliet.

Recommended Readings

Burman, Ben Lucien. *Look Down the Winding River.* NY: Taplinger Publishing Co., 1973.

McDermott, John Francis. ed. *The French in the Mississippi Valley.* Urbana: U. of Illinois Press., 1965.

Price, Willard. *The Amazing Mississippi.* London: Heinemann, 1962.

Severin, Timothy. *Explorers of the Mississippi.* NY: Alfred Knopf, 1968.

Boats on the Mississippi

During the first 20 years of the nineteenth century, flatboats, powered by muscle and current, dominated the River. Flatboats looked exactly as their name suggests; they were large flat boats designed to carry the maximum cargo down river. A Yankee trader once described a flatboat as "a species of ark very nearly resembling a pig-stye." A flatboat would remain at dock gathering cargo from the surrounding country until fully loaded. Then the crew would steer the boat down to New Orleans, where the cargo was sold and the boat was broken up and sold for lumber.

Pointed keelboats, riding high, but carrying 15 to 20 tons of freight, went downstream faster and, in addition, could go upstream. Boatmen moved these boats against the current by sailing or, more often, poling or dragging them. Since great strength and endurance were required for these jobs, the giants who propelled the vessels were a very tough lot. They were a colorful crowd, too: Mark Twain, in Chapter III of *Life on the Mississippi,* let Huck Finn describe an incident revealing "keelboat talk and manners."

The advent of the steam engine revolutionized river trade. Big, fast, and often quite elegant, steamboats soon became the kings of the Mississippi. Between 1820 and 1860 the number of steamboats cruising the River jumped from 60 to nearly 1,000, carrying 3 million passengers and tons of freight every year.

Steamboats were uniquely suited to river travel. From 100 to 300 feet long and carrying several decks, they could transport a sizeable amount of cargo

Life On The Mississippi is produced and presented by the Nebraska ETV Network and Great Amwell Company in Association with WNET/Thirteen. A special presentation in the Humanities made possible with a major grant from The National Endowment for the Humanities and additional grants from John Deere Company, Exxon Corporation, Andrew W. Mellon Foundation, and Arthur Vining Davis Foundations.

each trip. Yet, their shallow-draft hulls allowed them to skim over sandbars and slide past river snags. Most importantly, they could travel faster than other boats had ever been able to.

While the steamers were fast and extremely profitable, they were always dangerous. One passenger called them "swimming volcanoes." Fires, exploding boilers, and the many dangers involved in navigating the Mississippi made riverboat passage a real risk to the traveler. Mark Twain's own brother, Henry, was killed when a boiler exploded on the steamship *Pennsylvania.*

In spite of the danger, steamboat trade flourished. It controlled the commerce and agriculture of a large part of the United States, as well as channeling much of the migration to the West. But the flush days of riverboating were to last for only 50 years.

After the Civil War, the railroad industry grew at an amazing rate. By the 1880's, railroad bridges crisscrossed the Mississippi. It was cheaper and faster to ship by rail, and trains soon made steamers obsolete. By 1910, ghost towns dotted the River, and many old steamboats were no longer worth the cost of their upkeep.

Eventually, Congress realized that the railroads could not handle the nation's transportation needs alone. During the 1920's, it appropriated funds to "improve the River." In the ensuing years, the River has been considerably tamed. A shipping channel was dug out of the River bottom, nine feet deep and 200 feet wide. Snag and dredge boats have removed obstacles. Systems of locks and dams now regulate the depth and flow of the River, raising the water level in dry seasons. Engineering feats, navigation lights, spillways, levees, and floodgates have harnessed the Mississippi to serve humanity's needs. (Except, of course, when floods get out of control.)

The boats used today on the Mississippi, tugboats and towboats, use their powerful diesel engines to push lines of huge barges linked by steel cables; one towboat may push as many as 50 on one trip. (A chain of 50 barges would be possible only below St. Louis because of all the locks and dams on the upper level.) The River now carries more cargo than it ever did during the steamboat days.

As a result of this progress, the Mississippi has been robbed of much of its old charm and adventure. While modern River pilots are certainly skillful, no longer must a pilot possess the daring and heroic courage of the pilots of Twain's day.

Questions and Activities

1. Build models of the different types of riverboats, i.e. tugs, steamboats, shantyboats, rafts, keelboats, birchbark canoes. Display the models in a riverboat collection.
2. The steamboats hit their peak in the 1870's. What caused their decline?
3. Is there currently a competition between the railroad industry and the river barges for the transportation of goods and produce? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each system? Has the federal government affected either industry?
4. If Mark Twain were to take a journey down the Mississippi today, what changes would he see? What would have remained the same?
5. Define the following terms: (a) *levee,* (b) *delta,* (c) *sediment,* (e) *tributary,* (f) *bayou,* (g) *spillway,* and (h) *shoal.*
6. Research the locks and dams on the Mississippi. Why are they there? How do they work? Have they contributed to the demise of the daredevil River pilot? Students might construct a model of a lock and dam system. As a corollary activity, they might take a field trip to a local waterway to see a system of locks or a dam in operation.
7. Discuss the importance of the Mississippi River in the Civil War. Be sure to discuss the battle of Vicksburg.
8. Trace the words and roots of some blues music back to the Mississippi.

Recommended Readings

Botkin, B.A. ed. *A Treasury of Mississippi Folklore.* NY: Crown Publishing, 1955.

Havighurst, Walter. *Voices on the River: The Story of the Mississippi.* NY: MacMillan, 1964.

Hunter, Louis. *Steamboats on the Western Rivers.* NY: Octagon Books, 1969.

Life on the Mississippi

Life on the Mississippi is both a "rite of passage" story, chronicling Sam Clemen's progress from an uncertain cub to a confident pilot, and a piece of historical journalism about a profession and a way of life that no longer exist. Throughout, Twain manages to impart an amazing amount of information about steamboats, piloting, and the River in an engaging style. One way Twain accomplishes this is by involving the reader in the often humorous ups and downs of Sam's apprenticeship. As Sam learns about the River, so do we, but we have the advantage of being able to laugh at his mistakes from the comfort of an easy chair.

The book *Life on the Mississippi* is an artful blend of autobio-

graphical fact and fiction, making it difficult to tell which adventures Mark Twain actually experienced and which the writer invented later on.

Twain did know the River. He not only grew up on the Mississippi, he actually was a steamboat pilot. He obtained his license on April 9, 1859. But, as Huck Finn would say, he also told some "stretchers." One example of Twain's bending the truth in *Life on the Mississippi* is his misrepresentation of Sam's ignorance. In the book, Sam hardly seems older than 17 and appears to know very little about the River when he first boards the *Paul Jones*. In fact, Samuel Clemens had spent his youth on the River, had learned much about steamboats, and was nearly 22 when he became a cub.

Why would Twain portray himself as being more inexperienced and uncertain than he really was? One reason is humor. By poking fun at himself, Twain invited readers to laugh along with him, and in the process, engaged their interest. Perhaps a more important reason is that by exaggering the ignorance and inexperience of Sam, Twain could better illustrate the incredible amount of knowledge and skill required to be a steamboat pilot.

The basic plot follows Sam's progress as Horace Bixby, his master pilot, schools him in the vagaries of the River and the art of piloting. Sam's apprenticeship is more than just a training period. He also matures from an awkward boy into a self-assured man. As his teacher, Bixby helps Sam gain insights into both the River and himself.

Sam experiences a wide range of emotional ups and downs during his apprenticeship; from ecstacy to dejection; from bumbling uncertainty to the cocksure swagger of the king of all pilothouses. Every time Sam masters a little information, he discovers a torrent of facts that he has yet to learn. He gets so discouraged at one point that he tells Bixby: "I want to retire from this business. I want a slush bucket and a brush; I'm only fit for a roustabout. I haven't got brains enough to be a pilot; and if I had, I wouldn't have strength enough to carry them around, unless I went on crutches."

To be admitted to the select company of steamboat pilots was a huge honor. Twain claimed, "A pilot, in those days, was the only unfettered and entirely independent human being that lived in the earth." According to Twain, the qualities demanded of every pilot are a steel-trap memory; good judgment; and "a cool, calm courage that no peril can shake."

Twain writes that "a pilot's memory is about the most wonderful thing in the world." He compared the feat of a pilot memorizing every curve, snag, and bend of the Mississippi, both upstream and downstream to a pedestrian committing to heart every detail of the longest street in New York and being able to pinpoint the location of each lamppost if set down at a random point in the dark. Much of Sam's early despair stemmed from the overload he put on his memory. In fact, when Bixby first told Sam the names of points and crossings, Sam assumed Bixby was simply being "entertaining." He was stunned to learn that he was expected to memorize all those facts.

While a pilot's memory seems difficult to cultivate, Twain writes that courage and judgment are even higher qualities. Courage can be cultivated, too, but it isn't really tested until a cub pilot stands his own watch and assumes the responsibilities of the boat without leaning on the courage of someone else.

One day, Bixby and the crew give Sam a "hard lesson" in courage and the dangers of conceit. Sam has mastered many details of the River and is becoming cocky, so Bixby conspires to whittle him down to size by making him believe the boat is in danger of hitting a shoal at a crossing that Sam *knows* is bottomless.

As the boat approaches the designated position, with Sam lounging nonchalantly at the wheel, the captain, Bixby, and the crew gather on the hurricane deck where they begin to take false soundings and glance worriedly at the pilothouse. Panicking, Sam backs the boat to a dead stop over one of the deepest stretches of the River. Hearing the laughter of his mates, Sam realizes that they have played a trick on him and feels "meaner than the meanest man in history." Afterward, Bixby admonishes Sam: "You shouldn't allow me or anybody else to shake your confidence in your knowledge," and "when you get into a dangerous place, don't turn coward."

The final quality demanded of a pilot is judgment. According to Twain, judgment is the hardest quality to develop. "Judgment is a matter of brains, and a man must start with a good stock of that article or he will never succeed as a pilot." He cites the perfect example of a pilot using his memory and courage to complement his judgment when Bixby makes the dangerous crossing at Hat Island in the dark.

In one of the most dramatic passages in the book. Bixby decides to run a treacherous blind reef in the dark in order to make up some lost time.

In the process of becoming a pilot, Sam matures. Although he realizes a long-time dream, he loses some things along the way. One is his ability to appreciate the beauty of the Mississippi. Before becoming a cub, Sam had reveled in a beautiful sunset, but when, as a pilot, he watches a red sunset, he thinks of it only as an indicator of tomorrow's weather. He is so busy studying and analyzing the River that its romance and beauty are lost to him. Sam wonders whether he "gained most or lost most" by learning his trade. Twain provides his own answer later on in *Life on the Mississippi:*

"If I have seemed to love my subject, it is no surprising thing, for I loved the profession far better than any I have followed since, and I took a measureless pride in it."

Questions and Activities

1. Read the book *Life on the Mississippi* and compare it to the television program. How are they different? What do you think was gained or lost in the translation from print to television?
2. Research Samuel Clemens' life and determine just how autobiographical *Life on the Mississippi* is.
3. Discuss the relationship between Sam and Bixby. Is it similar to that of a father and son?
4. Mark Twain learned how to pilot a steamboat as an apprentice. What jobs or professions offer apprenticeships now? What parallels can be drawn between an apprenticeship and other forms of learning and experience?
5. As Sam gains mastery of piloting, the River loses its romance for him. Why? Do you think a loss of enchantment is inevitable as one grows older? Explain. In a corollary discussion, do you think doctors lose their ability to appreciate the beauty of the human body?
6. Write an essay in which you discuss what the "art of piloting" an unknowable river meant to Twain on a metaphoric level.
7. Compare Sam's apprenticeship on the Mississippi to that of Wellingborough Redburn's on the Atlantic in *Redburn: His First Voyage* by Herman Melville.
8. Professor Norris Yates describes one tall-tale pattern thus: "Event is piled on event and detail on detail, each taller than the last, until the apex, the tallest incident of all, is reached." What are the elements of a good tall tale? Students might study some of the whoppers told by Sam or the raftsmen in Chapter III of *Life on the Mississippi* and then write their own tall tales.
9. Mark Twain labored long over paragraph two of Chapter IV of *Life on the Mississippi,* perhaps because it concretely suggests the tremendous importance of steamboat traffic to riverside dwellers during his boyhood. The contrast, pivoting around the words "the scene changes," is between the town before, during, and after the visit of a steamboat. How do (a) details of movement and lassitude, (b) representations of colorlessness and color, of silence and sound, and (c) the forms of sentences and clauses all contribute to the contrast?

Mark Twain

Mark Twain is the pen name for Samuel Langhorne Clemens. Clemens, born in 1835, grew up in Hannibal, Missouri, a small town on the Mississippi River. It is important to note the atmosphere of Hannibal because it had a powerful effect on the humorist's life and work. Hannibal provides much of the material for works such as *Tom Sawyer, Huckleberry Finn,* and *Puddin'head Wilson.*

Bernard DeVoto, noted Twain scholar, has claimed that the people of the Hannibal of the author's boyhood, like those of other towns near the edge of settled areas, differed from previous generations because they no longer looked to Europe for most of their cultural standards. Hannibal retained many frontier ways, but because it was exposed to the cosmopolitan River traffic, its inhabitants were aware of the outside world. Having grown up in Hannibal, the author was able to recall and recapture the life of a Mississippi riverside village in vivid "local color" stories of universal interest. By capturing the speech, habits, and style of this new America, Twain became, to many, the "father of truly American literature."

Sam Clemens left Hannibal when he was 17 and set out to make his fortune. After working as a printer for several years, he returned to the Mississippi and, when nearly 22, apprenticed himself to a steamboat pilot, determined to "learn the river." His piloting days, obviously, are the basis for *Life on the Mississippi.* Steamboating also provided Clemens with his pen name "Mark Twain," a depth sounding that steamboatmen called out to announce that the River was two fathoms deep.

The Civil War halted River traffic and Clemens' piloting career. Between 1861 and 1870, Clemens lived in the West, where he tried his hand at a wide variety of professions from prospector to miner to newspaper reporter. Although he didn't travel with the purpose

of gathering material for his writing, his first popular short story, "Jim Smiley and His Jumping Frog," published in 1865, drew upon his Western experiences.

In 1874, Clemens settled down in Hartford, Connecticut, where he lived with his wife Olivia. During his Hartford years, he wrote some of his best work, dealing with his background and early life. *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* is a nostalgic tale of boyhood adventure in Hannibal which, like *Life on the Mississippi,* and *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn,* memorably depicts riverside life in pre-Civil War America. In these works, Twain polished and perfected his style.

One of Twain's greatest gifts was a keen ear for the American way of talking. He was able to write dialogue and have characters such as Huck Finn and the Connecticut Yankee tell book-length stories rich in vernacular phrasings. A reader encountering the colorful and vigorous language of Huck Finn really feels that Huck grew up on the Mississippi during the first half of the nineteenth century. But Twain's ear for dialogue was more than an aid to developing a writing style. By using language such as the American "common man" spoke, Twain broke stuffy literary conventions and offered future writers alternatives in their choice of both style and subject. And as a very popular writer, Twain helped cultivate a more diverse American reading public.

Another trademark of Twain's literary style is his wit and humor. Sometimes his humor originates in his way with words. Often, Twain filled a character's mouth with such colorful language that the reader has to smile in admiration. For example, in describing a sleepwalking steamboat pilot, he wrote: "I never saw anything so gaudy before. And, if he can do such gold-leaf, kid-glove, diamond-breastpin piloting when he is asleep, what couldn't he do if he was dead!" Twain's wit could also have a biting edge. Pudd'in'head Wilson's calendar is loaded with one-liners such as "Nothing so needs reforming as other people's habits."

Life on the Mississippi is also a good illustration of Twain's knack for characterization. Sam is an innocent, like the tourist in *Innocents Abroad* and the tenderfoot in *Roughing It,* whose romantic expectations bump smack into disillusioning realities. The results are amusing, but the comedy—like that in most of the best humor—is touched with pathos, so the reader not only laughs at Sam but also sympathizes with him. And, the picturing of Bixby, well-informed, skilled, and mature, brings Sam's contrasting qualities into sharp relief.

Some unsound financial speculation made the author's final years difficult. He invested heavily in an unperfected typesetting machine and in 1894 found himself bankrupt. To pay off his debts, Clemens was forced to make a worldwide lecture tour. The last years of his life were darkened by a growing pessimism that was accelerated by both his financial troubles and the death of his wife and daughter. Samuel Clemens died in 1910.

Questions and Activities

1. Twain wrote that he took a "measureless pride" in his skill as a pilot. Discuss the importance of taking pride in something. Are the members of the class particularly proud of any one thing they have done? Do you think a person can be proud of whatever work he or she does? How much do our opinions of ourselves affect our happiness? In a related activity, write a short story or poem about taking pride in an activity most people don't admire.
2. "Hyperbole" is an exaggeration for emphasis or humorous effect. Twain's humor often relies on hyperbole. Find examples of it in *Life on the Mississippi* and his other works.
3. Twain was one of the first major American writers to use American vernacular speech in the unfolding of long first-person narratives. Find examples of colloquialisms in *Life on the Mississippi.* Students might read Twain's essay "Fenimore Cooper's Literary Offenses," criticizing *The Deerslayer,* to better understand Twain's literary tastes.

Recommended Readings

Blair, Walter. *Mark Twain and "Huck Finn."* Berkely: U. of California Press., 1960.

DeVoto, Bernard. *Mark Twain's America.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1935.

Ferguson, John DeLancey. *Mark Twain: Man and Legend.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1943.

Kaplan, Justin. *Mr. Clemens and Mr. Twain.* NY: Simon and Shuster, 1966.

Wecter, Dixon. *Sam Clemens of Hannibal.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1952.

Life on the Mississippi. NY: New American Libraries, 1961.

The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn. NY: New American Libraries, 1959.

The Adventures of Tom Sawyer. NY: New American Libraries,

A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1972.

The Tragedy of Puddin'head Wilson. Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1969.

The following letter is designed to be duplicated by the teacher and sent home with the student so that the whole family can participate in this valuable learning experience.

Dear Parent:

On Monday evening, November 24, at 8:00 p.m., EST, your local PBS station is featuring the special broadcast, ***Life On The Mississippi,*** based on the novel by Mark Twain.

Twain's *Life on the Mississippi* presents a fictionalized view of the people and places on the Mississippi River a century ago. By studying the Mississippi and noting how it has changed over the years, we can learn much about American history and the role the River has played in our nation's development.

Your son or daughter has been asked to watch this program as a homework assignment. It will give him or her an insightful look into the world of Mark Twain and a look at one of our nation's greatest economic resources. I hope you will take part in this educational and enlightening experience along with your child.

To help your child's understanding of the program and to enhance yours and your child's viewing of ***Life On The Mississippi*** the following activities are provided.

Sincerely,

BEFORE viewing ***Life On The Mississippi:***

1. Mark Twain is often called the Father of American Literature. The family might read together some of Twain's works, such as *Life on the Mississippi, The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn, Tom Sawyer* or *Tragedy of Puddin'head Wilson.* Adaptations of Twain's novels are available for younger children. Visit your local library or bookstore.
2. Locate the Mississippi on a map. Trace its course. How many states border the Mississippi? Locate major cities on the Mississippi.
3. Using your dictionary, define the following terms: (a) *levee,* (b) *delta,* (c) *sediment,* (d) *bayou,* (3) *tributary,* (f) *spillway,* and (g) *shoal.*

AFTER viewing ***Life On The Mississippi:***

1. Mark Twain is the pen name for Samuel Langhorne Clemens. How did he come to choose the name Mark Twain? What does *Mark Twain* mean?
2. Mark Twain learned how to pilot a steamboat as an apprentice. What other jobs require apprenticeships? What skills or hobbies can you share with your child?
3. As Sam gains mastery of piloting, the River loses its romance for him. Do you think a loss of enchantment is inevitable as one grows older?
4. Discuss the relationships between Sam and Bixby. Is it similar to that of a parent and child?
5. The Mississippi was and still is important to the economic growth of this country. Trade and commerce depends upon transportation. What are the chief industries in your city? How are they linked to transportation? What transportation systems are used in your city?
6. In the early days of riverboat travel on the Mississippi, pilots had to memorize a river. How does today's pilot navigate his way down river? How would your family go about "navigating" a trip across country?

The following books are recommended for further reading on Mark Twain and the Mississippi.

Blair, Walter. *Mark Twain and "Huck Finn."* University of California Press, 1960.
Ferguson, Delancy. *Mark Twain: Man and Legend.* Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1943.
Havighurst, Walter. *Voices on the River: The Story of the Mississippi.* MacMillian, 1964.
Hunter, Louis. *Steamboats on the Western Rivers.* Octagon Books, 1969.

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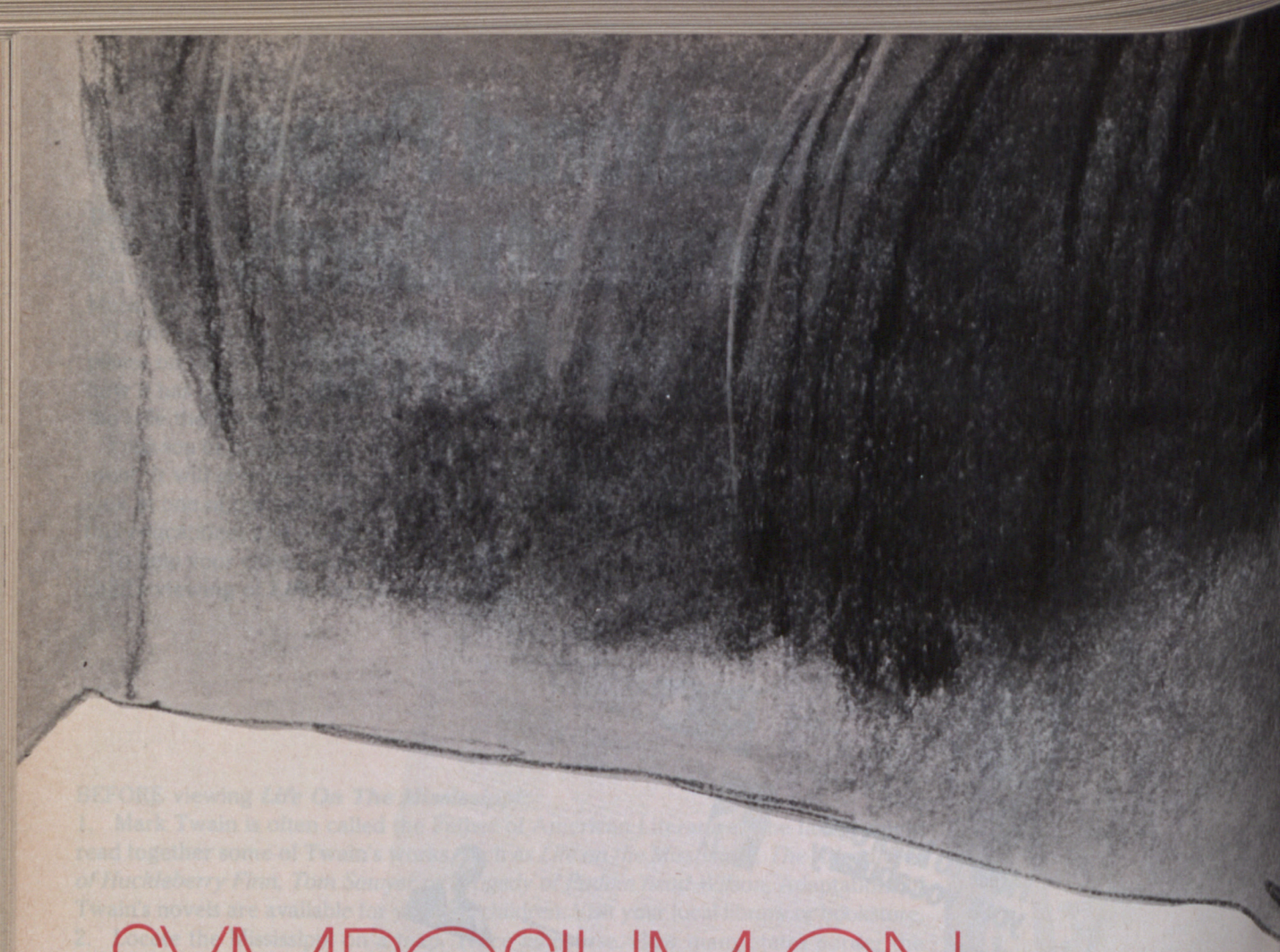
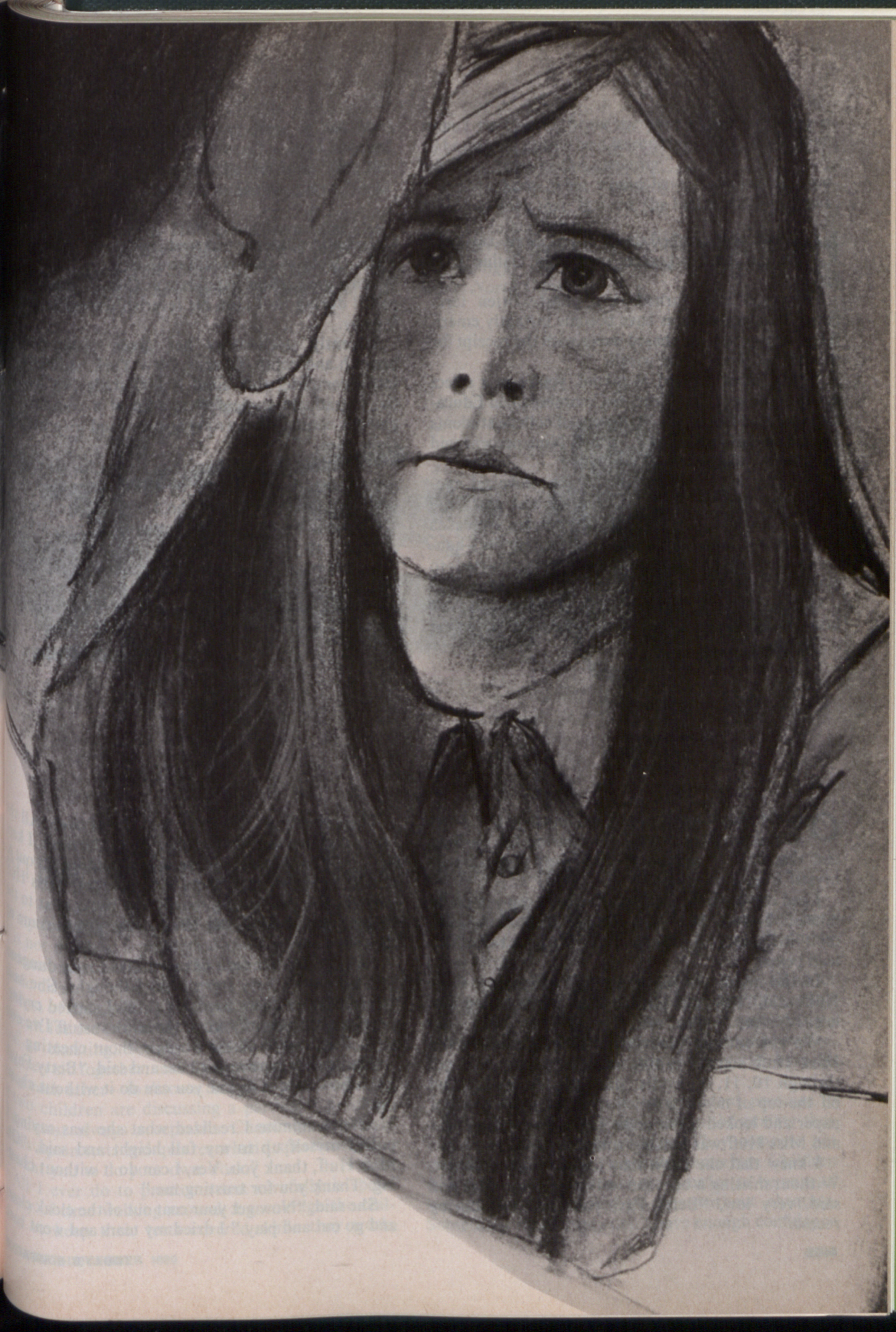


SYMPOSIUM ON CHEATING

From time to time, a cheating scandal arouses public notice briefly, then subsides. Unfortunately, the problem of cheating does not vanish with the scandal. Teachers may encounter it in their classrooms at any time.

Why does a student cheat? What kinds of cheating are most common? Do different cultures have different attitudes about sharing information? What are teachers doing to discourage cheating? What happens when cheating is detected?

The editors of Today's Education *looked for answers to these questions. What follows is what we learned—from teachers, students, and published accounts.*



CHEATING: A NATIONAL PASTIME?

Have you ever cribbed on an exam? Sixty-two percent of high schoolers once told Gallup they had.

Have you ever turned in a ghost-written term paper? Undergraduates have become instantly emeriti for turning in a purchased paper with the receipt for payment still contained within.

If you never cheated in school, you're in a select group. Last year the Carnegie Commission on Education reported that 30 to 50 percent of college students had cheated at one time or another. Nine percent said they always cheated.

Cheating at service academies has provoked agonized soul searching. In addition, several years ago Johns Hopkins University gave up its honor system as "unworkable." Princeton began reexamining its honor code after 17 percent of students admitted to cheating.

Competition for law and medical schools has not brought out the best in some candidates. A Columbia University student tinkered with his classmates' alarm clocks so they would oversleep a critical exam. When a grad school candidate at Cornell dropped his pencil during his exam, his feverish testmates kicked it away.

Recently, technology has given cheating new breadth and depth. Queens, New York, students got into a computer and raised 10,000 grades. In Australia, a graduate student programmed a computer to give his competitors wrong answers and give him the right ones.

If a survey done in the sixties still holds true, however, students are affected by trust or the lack of it. Granted, three-fourths of the 5,400 college students surveyed admitted an act of academic dishonesty. But although 36 percent of them cheated in closely proctored exams, only 18 percent cheated in unproctored tests.

—**Sid Moody,** *in an Associated Press news feature, April 13, 1980.*

"I CAN DO IT WITHOUT CHEATING"

One morning when I was in the fourth grade, I felt that I would just have to cheat on the spelling test that day. It seemed the only way I could save myself from a poor grade.

I had one of those lead pencils with a top you could take off. I wrote the word I couldn't spell—*kitchen*—on a little piece of paper and put it in the top of the lead pencil.

In the middle of the morning, the teacher, Miss Huff, said, "Boys and girls, get out your spelling tablets. It's time for your test."

We got out our Blue Horse spelling tablets, and Miss Huff started calling off the words. She got through 10, 11, 12 words, and I was ready. I pulled off the top of my lead pencil. I took out the piece of paper and looked up to make sure nobody saw me—and Miss Huff was looking straight at me.

I knew that she knew that I knew that she knew. Without missing a beat she walked past my desk and said, very low, "Betty Fay, you'll see me during recess."

Then 19 words, 20 words, and it was over. All the other students sent their papers up to the desk. I kept sitting. Miss Huff let all the other children go out to recess. I kept sitting. Then, in a moment, Miss Huff looked up at me, sitting fourth row back, next to the bulletin board. She said, "Betty Fay, please come up here."

I went up to her desk like a captive to the dungeon. She gave me a very stern look, I thought. She said, "Betty Fay, it's very hard, isn't it?" I started crying.

I said, "Miss Huff, this is the hardest stuff I've ever seen. I can't spell all the words without cheating."

She put her arms around me and said, "Betty Fay, I know how hard it is, but you can do it without cheating."

After a minute I realized what she was saying. I pulled myself up to my full height and said, "Oh, Miss Huff, thank you. Yes, I can do it without cheating. Thank you for trusting me."

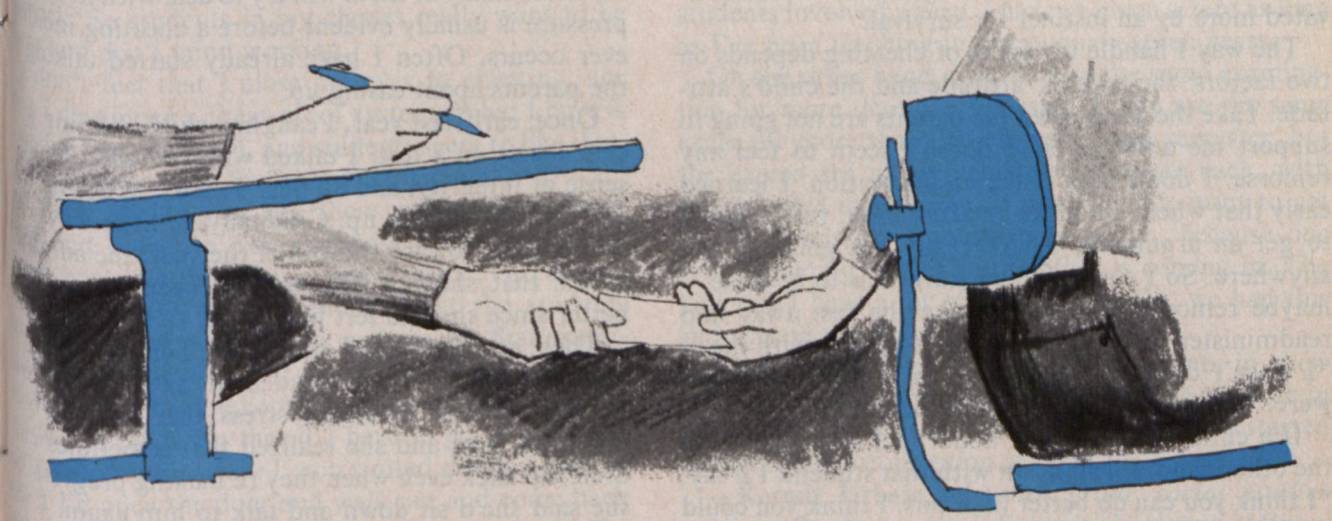
She said, "Now get your coat out of the cloak closet and go out and play." I dried my tears and went back

to the closet to get that old wet coat—it had been raining that mountain day in Kentucky—and I buried my face in it. I can still smell the wet wool. Into the coat I said, "Oh, I'll never cheat again—never." And I don't believe I have.

But you know, Miss Huff could have ruined me that day. She could have said, "Boys and girls, stop what you're doing right now. Can it be? O Lord, can it be yet again that we have somebody cheating in this room? Betty Fay, bring me your paper"—tearing it right up—"Let this be a lesson to us. I'm not going to have any more of this cheating."

I don't know what would have happened if Miss Huff had done that. Instead, she believed in me, and I lived up to her belief.

—**Betty L. Siegel,** *dean, School of Education and Psychology, Western Carolina University, Cullowhee, North Carolina.*



"MOST OF MY STUDENTS FEEL PRESSURE FROM HOME"

An Elementary School Teacher Speaks

In my fourth grade class of gifted students, cheating is not much of a problem. I usually have about 25 students, most of them in the upper-middle socioeconomic class.

Most of the cheating I see occurs on tests. It's very difficult for me to classify behavior in any other situation as cheating, because I stress cooperation. The children sit together, and I encourage them to learn from each other—to discuss things, to share ideas. So if two children are discussing a particular problem, it's almost always acceptable. Cheating really only shows up on tests and quizzes when I specifically say, "I want you to do your own work."

All I ever do to proctor a test carefully is spend plenty of time walking around. I encourage the children to keep their tests covered while they work, although the kind of tests I normally give don't have the kind of answers a child can easily copy off another paper anyway.

Many children have such a strong sense of honor that not only will they never cheat, but they won't allow cheating to occur in the room. Some of them will tell me it's going on; others go right to the source. It's remarkable the effect the children can have on one another.

Most of my students feel tremendous pressure to achieve, however. They show this in the anxiety they feel about assignments or tests. They compete not only with one another, but with themselves. Children who feel it necessary to cheat in order to be sure of top grades often would do fine without cheating. Sometimes they simply don't have enough confidence

in their ability to meet mom and dad's high expectations.

Simple realism also can cause pressure. Before I came to Burning Tree Elementary School two years ago, I had a class that contained maybe two groups of gifted children and one or two remedial reading groups, often containing children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. The main difference between the gifted and the remedial students' cheating was in motivation. The parents of many of the remedial students weren't in the picture at all, or there was only one parent. Very rarely were parents putting pressure on these children. Their cheating seemed to be motivated more by an instinct for survival.

The way I handle instances of cheating depends on two factors: the parents' attitude and the child's attitude. Take the cases when the parents are not going to support me and the child doesn't seem to feel any remorse. I don't even make an accusation. I learned early that when you make an accusation, you're going to get an argument; you're really not going to get anywhere. So I simply do whatever has to be done—maybe remove the child or take the test away and readminister it. If the child tries to argue with me—"I wasn't cheating"—I say, "Oh, I never said you were." Even discussing it would be pointless.

If a child has a sense of honor and self-esteem, on the other hand, I'll sit down with that student. I'll say, "I think you can do better than this. I think you could do fine on your own. I've always thought of you as an honest person, and I prefer to continue thinking of you that way. I hope that your actions will show me that I can continue to have this kind of faith in you."

Sometimes it works, and sometimes it doesn't. Often I can get through to a student the first time, and the incident never recurs.

I always keep a child's first cheating incident just between the child and me. If the parents are cooperative ones, I make clear to the child that if we can't solve the problem alone, we're going to have to involve mom and dad. And I stick to that. Few things are more difficult than calling parents and telling them you've caught their child cheating for the second time, but most of them appreciate it.

Parents know when their children are under pressure, and many of them will try to deal with it. In fact, pressure is usually evident before a cheating incident ever occurs. Often I have already started talking to the parents about easing up.

Once, early last year, I caught a child cheating with crib sheets on a test. I talked with the child about a sense of integrity, and all year I spoke to the mother simply about easing up. Gradually, in little ways, she did. Finally, toward the end of the year, she admitted to me that she felt her son had been doing much better since she had left him alone.

Then, at the very end of the year, I caught the child cheating again. When I called his mother, she was already familiar with the stress that he had been under all year, and she realized that sometimes children slip back even when they're making progress. So she said she'd sit down and talk to him again. I was relieved at the way this particular mother handled it, and I felt she did a good job.

—**Marilyn Schuman,** *fourth grade teacher, Burning Tree Elementary School, Bethesda, Maryland.*

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS REPORT ON CHEATING

Last winter when *Senior Weekly Reader* asked its readers some questions about cheating, nearly 7,000 sixth graders answered. Here (given in percentages) are their replies:

If you cheated on a test and everyone knew it, how many other students would criticize you? none: 14 one: 4 two: 14 three or more: 68

If you were taking a test and a stranger copied from your paper, how much would it bother you? not at all: 4 a little: 24 a lot: 72

If your good friend copied from your paper, how much would it bother you? not at all: 17 a little: 44 a lot: 39

Is there ever a good reason to cheat? no: 74 sometimes: 22 yes: 4

Can you think of a situation in which you were tempted to cheat but did not do so? yes: 46 no: 54

Many students, too, said that they had given in to the temptation to cheat, usually just to keep up with the class. Most of these students felt guilty about cheating.

Of the students who said they'd resisted a temptation to cheat, more were afraid of feeling guilty or of getting the wrong answer than of getting caught.

"TRUST THEM NOT TO CHEAT"

A High School Teacher Speaks

My eleventh grade social studies classes are elective, and everyone knows that my students have to work. So students in my classes really want to be there and don't mind working.

I don't feel that I close my eyes to cheating, nor have I developed a cheat-proof system. What I have is a kind of honor system, and students seem to like that. They appreciate the fact that I trust them.

I allow students to use their notebooks on both essay and objective examinations. I haven't given a closed-book examination in seven years. The examination is always difficult enough that the students have to study anyway. When we have our first examination, I tell the class, "It doesn't make any sense for you to have your notebooks open and to want to cheat besides." I tell them that if I have to go to the office during an examination, I won't mind doing it. And I don't. I'll open the door and walk out and come back and won't expect to find anything that even looks like cheating.

I let the class know, too, that if I think cheating is going on, I will just go to the grade book and give the students involved a zero. I haven't given a zero as long as I've been teaching in Owatonna—seven years.

On the other hand, I never give the same examination for more than one semester. I may use the same exam for more than one class the same semester, but the exams are nicely scheduled, back-to-back, with five minutes in between. If any students want to get the questions, it is going to be tough, because one group is going out while the other is coming in. The kids don't have a lot of time to say, Oh, we had this and this on the exam.

Some teachers have found that students in their first-hour classes are giving test questions to those in the sixth-hour classes, so those teachers have started changing the examination at noon.

—**Kermit Urbain,** *eleventh grade social studies teacher, Owatonna High School, Owatonna, Minnesota.*

HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' OPINIONS ON CHEATING

When a high school newspaper in an Eastern city asked students about cheating, it got the answers listed (by percentage) below:

Question	Yes	No
Have you ever cheated in any way on schoolwork?	84	16
Do you feel cheating is wrong or unethical?	78	22
Do you allow others to cheat off your paper?	50	50
Do you use cheat sheets?	19	81
Do you copy off others' papers during tests?	26	74
Do you copy homework?	37	63
Have you ever been caught cheating?	12	88
Would you turn in another student for cheating?	8	92
Do you feel guilty after having cheated?	43	57

The Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan included questions on cheating and competition in a nationwide survey of high school seniors in 1978. How would classmates feel if a student cheated on a test? Most would not care, said 75.2 percent; 16.6 percent thought classmates would dislike it; and another 4.3 percent, that they would dislike it very much.

Among the same students, 29.1 percent said there was little or no competition for grades at their school; 34.6 percent thought there was some; 26.6 percent, quite a bit; and 9.6 percent, a great deal.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND CHEATING

A U.S. Teacher in Turkey Speaks

Is cheating cheating all over the world, or is cheating *cooperating*—either helping or receiving help—in some cultures?

As an idealistic beginning teacher on a Peace Corps assignment in Turkey from 1963 to 1965, I attempted the difficult balancing act of adhering to my host country's mores while at the same time upholding my American ideals.

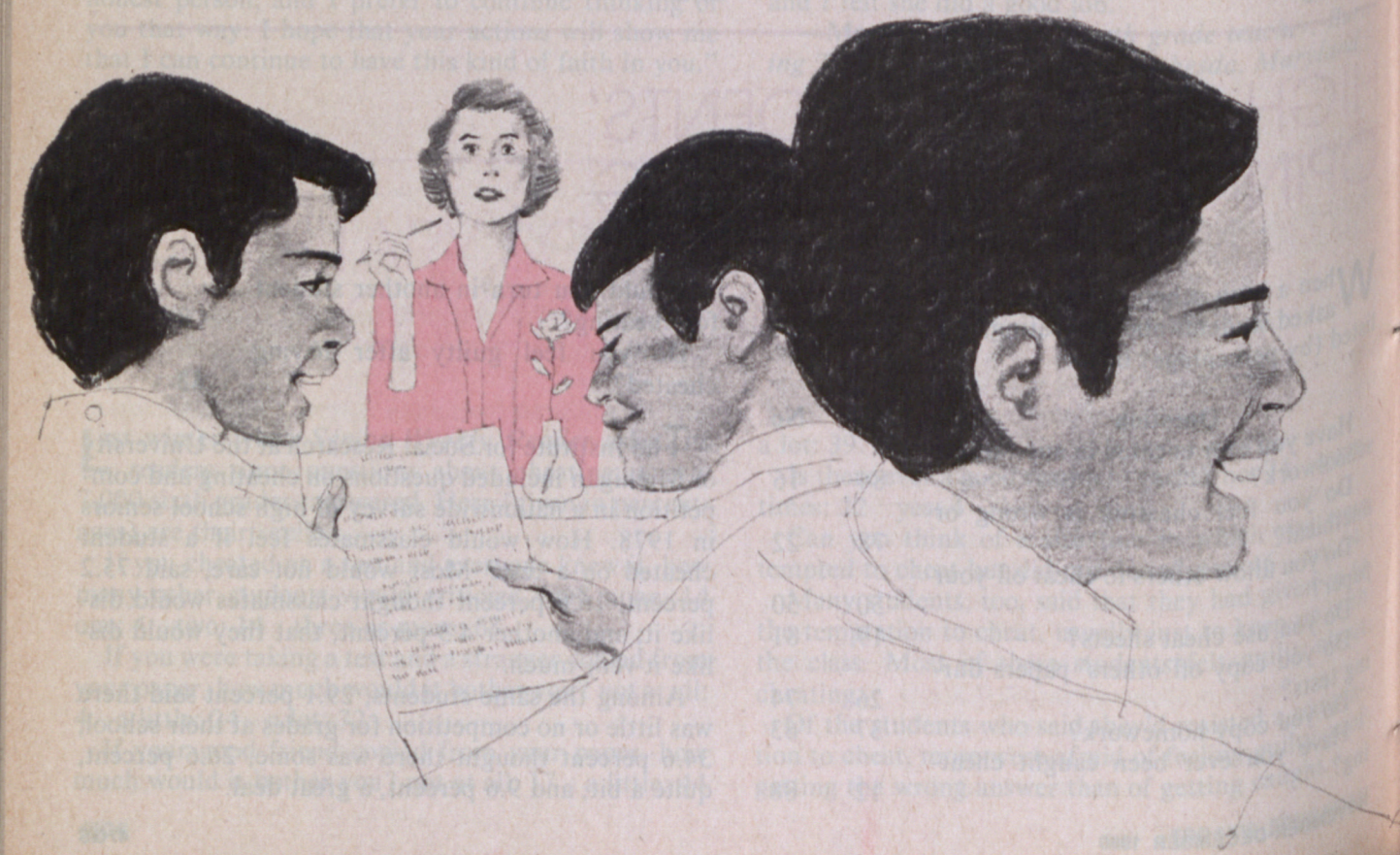
Almost immediately, however, my ideal of students' doing their own work came into conflict with their communal attitude of being duty-bound to help one another.

During my first year in Turkey, I taught English in a large public junior high school in the southeastern part of the country. My students sat in tiered rows, three to a desk, about 60 to a class. In a seventh grade class, students ranged in age from 11 to 19, depending on how many years they had been held back. Certainly these were not the best of conditions for a beginning teacher.

I was frankly horrified at the cheating (or so I called it) perpetrated daily as my students continually exchanged information on their schoolwork, both verbal and written.

In my first letter home, on October 4, 1963, I voiced what was to become my litany: "My main problem is discipline. All my students want to talk at once. If one student doesn't know the answer to a question, all his friends answer at once for him." This was just the tip of the iceberg. Below the verbal helping, I was to discover a pervasive system of ways students had devised to help one another during exams.

In the teachers' room, I compared notes with my Turkish colleagues. "Yes," they'd agree, "maybe 50 percent cheat. Just give them a zero; that's all you can do." But no; I wanted morality to prevail. The Turkish teachers, I concluded, were mistaken in their attitude—and I was not the only Peace Corps volunteer in Turkey to crusade against the moral degeneration of youth by making it harder and harder for them to cheat.



We volunteers requested and received simple mimeograph machines from Peace Corps headquarters in Ankara. And on November 2, 1963, I wrote to my mother, "Tomorrow is Sunday, and I'll probably spend most of the day typing and mimeographing tests for my students." By making out three different exams—one for each of the boys in the three-student desks—I made cheating very inconvenient for them. I thought it worth the effort then; but, now that I look back on it, I wonder whether I was not unjustifiably trying to impose my national bias on students who were simply not as competitive about life as Americans are brought up to be.

After that year on the Anatolian Plateau, I moved to the eastern Black Sea coast. There I began to notice a difference in students' attitudes about cheating that tied in with the generally more reserved social atmosphere in that region. On November 16, 1964, I wrote: "Gave all my classes written examinations yesterday. Because our mimeograph machine was broken, I had to write the questions on the blackboard and was pleasantly amazed that no one tried to cheat. This is quite a switch from last year."

Seeing such cultural differences even within the same country made me begin to understand that various social milieus shape moral attitudes. I was forced to conclude that cheating is not cheating is not cheating all across the world.

—**Martha C. Christian,** *education writer, Washington, DC.*

"THE STUDENTS KNOW WE ARE HERE TO HELP THEM"

A Community College Teacher Speaks

Cheating is something that people do because they are desperate or because they are uncertain of themselves or because they don't think of it as cheating—not because they are wicked. That's what I have always believed, and it certainly seems to be true at Kauai Community College in Hawaii.

Desperation is not much of a problem at Kauai. We don't have a heavily competitive, dog-eat-dog atmosphere, nor have we had any cheating scandals. Interchange between students and teachers is comfortable; the faculty doesn't suspect students of maintaining files of papers or exams or of buying term papers.

The College welcomes everybody; many of our students are in the first generation of their families to go

They don't see anything wrong with going to the encyclopedia and copying something out.

to college. We work with them where they are and don't put a lot of pressure on them. We are trying to help them succeed—perhaps more than some other colleges that put more emphasis on standards.

The students, for their part, know that we are there to help them and to get them through, so they are not trying to outwit us. On the Mainland (where I have also taught), in contrast, some students have the attitude "College is a system, and I have to beat the system. I am after the degree, and I don't care how I get it."

Our students don't have a sense of grievance against adults or against the establishment. They aren't completely virtuous, of course, but they are more tractable, less inclined to put things over on the teacher, than some students on the Mainland are.

Even though we don't put much pressure on students, some of them lack confidence, and we see some cheating. Students sometimes feel the pressure of competition; in addition, some cultural traditions incline students to copy or to help one another.

For different reasons, for example, many of our students who received their previous schooling abroad feel more pressure and are more competitive than those who grew up in Hawaii.

Many of the students from abroad are trying to get into a four-year university, so they want good grades. Their families have stressed achievement. On the other hand, many of the Filipino immigrant students, speaking Pilipino and Spanish, feel handicapped because their English is not as good as that of the other students, who have mostly come through school speaking English in Hawaii or Hong Kong. So we sometimes see cheating among foreign or immigrant students.

Since most of our Hawaiian-born students feel less of these kinds of pressure than their peers from Hong Kong or the Philippines, most of them, I believe, don't cheat on tests. When they have to write papers, however, they may plagiarize.

In such cases, lack of experience is often the cause. Some students may not have had sufficient practice in writing term papers in high school. They don't see anything wrong with going to the encyclopedia and copying something out. Nor do they always see the reason to give credit to their sources.

In some cases, however, the reason our local students cheat is cultural. Although they're Americans, many Hawaiian-born students come from a Chinese or Japanese tradition. In Asian cultures, particularly in the old days, copying was a way of learning; it wasn't thought ill of.

I saw another kind of cultural influence on cheating when I was teaching in Samoa in the 1960's. The Samoans don't have the same cultural taboo against cheating that we do. Much of their effort is communal, not individual. People are supposed to help each other. By urging our students to do their own work, we teachers were really imposing American values.

Because we recognized that we were dealing with a cultural difference, we didn't punish severely the behavior we considered to be cheating. If we thought the helping might get to be too much of a problem during a test (and those were usually objective tests), we would prepare two forms of the same exam.

Our students on Kauai who cheat aren't quite so innocent as the Samoans, but neither are they devious people or people who have worked out a system; they are just afraid of getting the wrong answer.

We rarely encounter a reaction that teachers elsewhere sometimes meet: students pretending that they haven't cheated and protesting wildly, "How could you think that of me?"

Most of the instructors at our college treat cheating in a way that seems appropriate for our students. First of all, along with teaching subject matter, we teach students our way of doing things—and part of that way is not to cheat. Then, if we see evidence of cheating, we deal with it in a way to save face for the cheater. We try to get the students to do their own work and to understand why copying won't work.

If a student plagiarizes, we deal with that privately. Most of the teachers at my school wouldn't call attention to plagiarism in front of a whole group, because it would be too humiliating.

Because we handle cheating and cheaters as we do, we don't have uptight students. We don't have suicides, for example, as some other places do.

—**Jeanne Bunyan,** *English teacher, Kauai Community College, Kauai, Hawaii.*

"IF I WERE TO CHEAT, I'D TURN MYSELF IN"

A College Student Speaks

I don't remember any cheating in elementary school; I think at that age we were so intimidated by the idea of getting into trouble that nobody would cheat. The cheating started in junior high.

By the time we were in high school, cheating was really the norm, even to me—and I considered myself one of the more law-abiding students.

The cheating was not a result of desperation, of students' feeling that it was their last chance in life, but an expression of not caring about the work or just of general dissatisfaction. It was even a little fashionable, just a thing to do.

I don't want to make it sound as if we always cheated. In my case, for example, if I realized someone I hardly knew was looking at my paper, I'd try to cover it up. But if a friend of mine asked me the answer to a question on a test, then just out of the simple adolescent desire for acceptance, I'd give in.

Homework was a different matter from tests. I was very jealous of my homework. I am aware now that my attitude toward copying homework came not simply from integrity but also from pride. If I did a piece of work, I didn't want someone else to take credit for it. I considered cheating dishonest, and I also felt pride in my own work.

In high school, the most common kind of cheating was simply looking at someone else's paper. Some students, however, had developed clever cheating systems.

In French class, I myself was involved in a cheating system, I am ashamed to say. We'd cheat in the oral sections on the tests, which were always the hardest. We had to try to understand what the tape was saying and then answer it quickly with the number or letter of the right answer. So as soon as we heard the question, we would tap with the finger that was the same number as the answer, counting from the thumb as *one*. We did it pretty nonchalantly. The French teacher once took off points when she caught me giving answers, but she never said anything about this system, so I don't think that she caught on to it.

Which classes had the most cheating? I see the distinction among teachers rather than among subjects. Certain teachers intimidated us more than others, and we liked certain teachers very much. We felt that certain teachers trusted us. And when a teacher was just vibrant and dynamic in general, we thought that was wonderful. We wouldn't cheat much in any of those teachers' classes.

The circumstances could make a difference, too. Sometimes the teachers would space out the desks, and I think that that sometimes worked.

When I was a freshman in college, I was invited back to high school to talk with the faculty about my impressions of the school. I mentioned cheating as a serious problem in high school.

A couple of teachers asked what I'd suggest they do when they caught someone cheating. One said, "What should I do, rip the paper up?"

I felt a little embarrassed and said something like "I really don't know." Today I probably would say "Yes, rip it up" more easily than I could then, when I was still closer to high school myself. Now I think that the teachers should be fairly severe about cheating—and consistent. They should have a basic policy and stick to it every time.

Competition for graduate school admission is intense, and some students become crazy with the pressure.

At Bryn Mawr College, where I'm studying now, the peer pressure is quite different from what it was in high school: It is pressure for honesty. I think there is very little cheating, and we're all aware of that little bit, because we take it very seriously.

Anyone who really wanted to cheat at Bryn Mawr certainly could. Our ordinary final exams are usually

elf-scheduled. We can go for any of several exam eriods and work in a room with people taking totally ifferent exams. We are left on our honor, without a eacher monitor. Sometimes we have take-home ams, and they, too, offer a very tempting situation. tudents could use books when they aren't supposed or take more time than is allowed or take an exam roblem to another student and say, "Oh, I'm doing a omework problem, could you help me?"

Pressure is a larger factor in cheating in college han it was in high school. Competition for graduate chool admission is intense, and some students ecome crazy with the pressure.

At the same time, some withstand pressure without heating. In our college community, for example, the onor system seems to work very well. Some profes- rs probably just settle incidents of cheating individ- ally, and no one hears anything about it. The profes- or goes to the student, and they decide together—perhaps on the professor's recommendation—to go to the Honor Board.

I don't know of many students' turning other students in. First of all, other students would be less aware of cheating than the professors would. Then, too, turning someone in would be very hard to do. I could turn myself in more easily than I could turn in someone else. From what I have heard, in fact, most of the students who come before the Honor Board have turned themselves in.

That isn't really surprising. I know that if I were to cheat, I'd turn myself in. It would not be just out of honesty, but out of ultimate selfishness. If I cheated and didn't turn myself in, it would live with me for the rest of my life. At Bryn Mawr there is a strong feeling of mutual trust, and to betray that would be betraying the community.

—**A College Senior,** *Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania.*

COLLEGE STUDENT BODY PRESIDENTS REPORT ON CHEATING

Cheating is no more of a problem today than it was four years ago, according to a survey of the student body presidents at 20 large public universities (institutions with at least 15,000 students). Eighteen of the presidents believe, in fact, that cheating may be on the decline.

Fifteen of these respondents explain that they think academic standards are somewhat lower than in the past and students feel less pressure. Only three said that current academic standards are too low, however. Most regard academic expectations as "fair" and "about right."

Eight of the 20 student body presidents admitted that they had cheated on "at least one examination" in college. Two of the eight said they cheated "on a regular basis," simply because "it is easy to do so." Sixteen said that at their institution cheating is not difficult and penalties are not severe enough to serve as a real deterrent. These students believe that professors need to employ greater vigilance in giving tests.

A majority of the survey participants believe that—

- There is much less cheating in upper-division courses than in lower-division courses because upper-division students are more deeply involved in their major academic areas.
- Most cheating takes place in large classes in colleges and universities.
- Students cheat more on minor quizzes that they feel are not important than on major examinations.
- Fewer and fewer students are willing to cheat on term papers, because plagiarism is often easy to detect and prove.

Seventeen of the 20 young people guessed that fewer than a third of the seniors at their institutions have cheated at one time or another.

All 20 of the student body presidents said cheating is much less prevalent in college than in high school, where many students have not established career objectives.

—**Gene A. Budig,** *president, West Virginia University, writing in the June 1979 issue of the* Phi Delta Kappan.

A CHEATING PROBLEM IN JAPAN

When the news broke at Waseda University, one of Japan's more prestigious institutions, the shock to those inside was almost unimaginable.

At a news conference, Waseda's president was so choked with emotion that he could barely speak. A fund-raising drive for the university's hundredth anniversary was postponed. Public apologies poured out, women staff members wept, and a dean resigned in the traditional Japanese way of accepting responsibility for a calamity.

The news was that entrance examinations for Waseda's school of commerce had been stolen, copied, and sold, complete with answers, for 10 million yen (about $40,200) each to overambitious parents desperate to see their children enrolled.

The widely publicized scandal provoked a new public debate over the high price of college admissions in Japan, a price usually measured not in money but in emotional strain, in family pressures, and often in student despair.

Social critics who have long deplored the system and advocated reform found the Waseda exam-peddling scandal an almost inevitable result of competition for admission to a leading college. Such admission is the key to success in Japan, and the pressures to pass entrance exams are intense.

The failure rate is high. Out of 22,777 hopefuls who took the Waseda commerce test recently, only 2,130 were accepted.

Applicants tolerate the pressures because the stakes are so high—for an ambitious person, perhaps the highest of a lifetime. Admission to a top college virtually guarantees lifetime employment at a good salary. Once admitted, students enter a leisurely academic routine. Few flunk out. Even before graduation, young people are recruited by the best companies. Barring some calamitous experience on the job, they get regular raises and promotions until retirement.

Because the entrance exam has such value, theft is not new. It is rare, however, for a widespread exam-selling scandal to hit a major university such as Waseda. Now unconfirmed reports hint at a broader conspiracy. Police reportedly suspect that a network of "brokers" was enlisted to sell the exam.

In other countries, the escapade might have been dismissed as the work of a few bad apples, but in Japan the whole institution must suffer. Waseda's president has apologized to the school's directors for a "dishonorable" incident that had soiled nearly a century of tradition.

—**William Chapman,** *writing in the* Washington Post *of March 23, 1980.*

HOW CAN SCHOOLS HELP REDUCE DECEPTION?

Educational institutions have a very large role to play....First of all, they...have to look to their own practices. How scrupulously honest are they in setting an example? How do they cope with cheating, with plagiarism, and with fraudulent research? What pressures encourage such behavior? To what extent, and in what disciplines, are deceptive techniques actually *taught* to students? What lines do law school courses, for instance, draw with respect to courtroom tactics, or business school courses with respect to bargaining and negotiation? Second, what can education bring to the training of students, in order that they may be more discerning, better able to cope with the various forms of duplicity that they will encounter in working life? Colleges and universities, as well as...many others need to consider how moral choice can best be studied and what standards can be expected, as well as upheld.

Throughout society...all would benefit if the incentive structure associated with deceit were changed: if the gains from deception were lowered, and honesty made more worthwhile even in the short run....

Deceptive practices are not immutable. In an imperfect world, they cannot be wiped out altogether; but surely they can be reduced and counteracted.... Trust and integrity are precious resources, easily squandered, hard to regain. They can thrive only on a foundation of respect for veracity.

—*From* Lying *by* **Sissela Bok,** *teacher of ethics and decision making, Harvard Medical School.* © *1978 by Sissela Bok. Reprinted by permission of Pantheon Books, a Division of Random House, Inc.*

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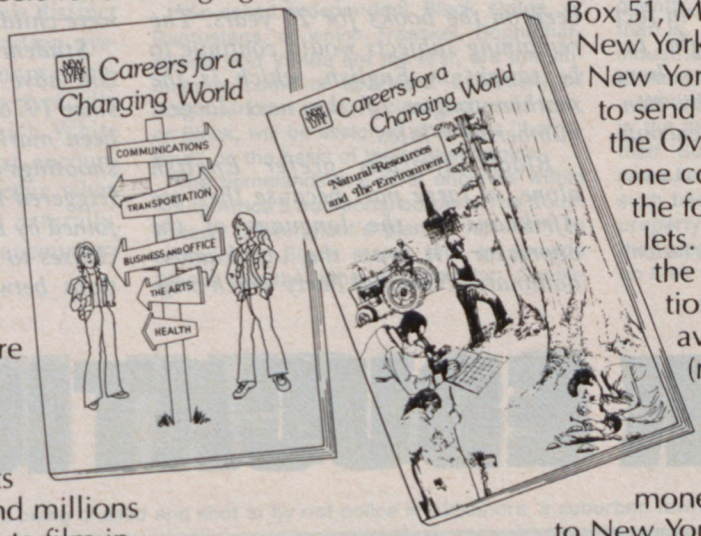

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BLACK EDUCATION IN

In the Republic of South Africa, education—like most other areas of human activity—has developed since 1948 under the official government policy of apartheid *(separate development). Today South Africa operates four distinct educational systems: one each for Whites, Africans (Blacks), Coloureds (people of mixed ancestry), and Asians. Until recently, each system emanated from a separate ministry of the national government.*

South African Blacks have long criticized the education system designed for them, primarily because of the substantial inequalities it exhibits when compared to the system for Whites. Education issues have in fact become basic to the struggle for equality. In recent years they have precipitated demonstrations by nonwhites that have led to violent encounters with police. Typically, the outbreaks have occurred in segregated urban areas, where the nonwhite ethnic groups live in their own neighborhoods or townships.

In 1976, high school students in Soweto, a Black suburb of Johannesburg, set off what were to become known as the Soweto riots. At issue was their refusal to accept the Afrikaans language, spoken by South Africans of Dutch descent, as a medium of instruction. The Government had recently ordered that half of all secondary subjects be taught in Afrikaans. This requirement, never uniformly or completely enforced, had been on the books for 20 years. The remaining subjects would continue to be taught in English, which is the mother tongue of the next largest number of Whites.

Black Africans prefer English alone, in large part because they see Afrikaans as the language of the oppressor. It was the Afrikaaner-dominated National Party which originated apartheid *after its electoral victory in 1948. Ever since then the National Party has controlled the national government and thus has been able to put* apartheid *into effect.*

The young people in Soweto thus decided they would have no more of Afrikaans. In the course of demonstrations, however, police shot and killed students and others. Rioting started on June 16 and spread to other areas of South Africa. According to the South African Institute of Race Relations, when deaths in related incidents elsewhere in the country throughout 1976 were added in, the death toll climbed to 618, of whom 85 were children or youths.

Student dissatisfaction and activism have not subsided in the years since 1976. The current year has also been marked by demonstrations and shootings by police. These events were triggered by Coloured students (later joined by Blacks), who boycotted their classes to protest inequality of conditions between their schools and the

By R. L. PETENI
President, African Teachers Association of South Africa.

hools for Whites.

In the following article, R. L. Pete- president of the major Black achers union in South Africa, de- ribes the deficiencies of the educa- on system for Blacks and explains hat can be done about them.

n this article, I will try to give readers in the United States an insight into e status of Black education in South frica and to describe the part played y Whites in the education of Blacks. The structure of education in South frica coincides with the discriminato- unintegrated political structure of e country. The Blacks have a system education that is at all levels distinct d separate from the education sys- ms of other population groups. Con- quently, Black children typically ow up in a world from which White ople are absent. Their first encoun- rs with Whites usually occur when ey take their first jobs; naturally, ey are likely to find such encounters ite jolting.

One of the goals of education for Black children should be to prepare them for the work situations in which they will ultimately find themselves. Unfortunately, the educational program is not always so planned.

Control of Black education. Black education is controlled by the Department of Education and Training, a ministry of the national government. It is the largest education department in the country in terms of both the size of its constituency and the scope of its task. Its constituency is a school population of more than 3 million Black South Africans. Its task is to provide the full range of education from literacy through university training, as well as training for employment in trade and industry at various levels. (In fact, if the Black states which have become independent*—Transkei, Bophuthatswana, and Venda—are included, the total number of pupils is 4.5 million. It is fair to include these three states because in spite of their independence they still work closely with South Africa and are dependent on it for many of their educational services.)

What is most striking about the

*So-called independent Black states, or Bantustans, of which Transkei, Bophuthatswana, and Venda are the first, are the ultimate outcome of *apartheid*. Eventually all South Africans who are classified as African, or Black, will be assigned an ethnic "homeland" on the basis of their tribal origins.

The homelands are rural enclaves within South Africa's traditional borders. The South African Government's plan is for them to evolve into Black states and to provide Blacks with the rights of citizenship. Consequently, when Blacks are in South Africa—that is, in the urbanized commercial and industrial part of the country (where millions of them now live)—they will be aliens.

Whatever status their eventual citizenship in the independent states may give Blacks, their South African citizenship in recent years has meant not having political rights or such basic civil liberties as the right to own property with full title deeds, to live where they please, and to be free from restrictions on their movements in the big cities.—*Ed.*

OUTH AFRICA

Young student demonstrators being chased and shot at by riot police in Alexandra, a suburban township of Johannesburg, South Africa.

The holocaust is certain to come if discrimination is not outlawed.

Department that administers education for Blacks is that at the higher levels, it is controlled solely by Whites—from the minister through the deputy minister, secretary, deputy secretary, under secretary, planners, directors, and regional directors down to the circuit inspectors. Black personnel begin to appear only at the level of inspector (under a circuit inspector), head teacher (principal), and teacher. And yet the Department is supposed to concern itself solely with Black education.

The African Teachers Association of South Africa (ATASA) and other Black organizations have demanded not only that Black academics be appointed to some of the posts in the Department, including the highest, but also that the education system be single, uniform, and nondiscriminatory, under one government department—instead of four separate education systems as at present. Genuine lovers of South Africa look forward to the day when this will be achieved, but the response of the authorities to this demand has not yet been satisfactory.

Financing Black education. The present Government has been criticized for continuing its predecessors' policy of unequal financing of education for different population groups. According to several experts, the Government's per capita expenditure on Black education is one-tenth the expenditure on White education. The Black community itself—through contributions and the payment of student fees that other ethnic groups do not have to pay—tries but cannot begin to narrow this expenditure gap. The low quality of Black education is in the main traceable to this insufficiency of funds. Administrators, teachers, and the public continually point to poor funding as the main cause of the Department's failure to reach the educational goals set in all the areas discussed below.

Compulsory education. Education is compulsory for Whites in South Africa but not for Blacks. Black leaders demand the immediate introduction of compulsory education, but the authorities cite the following obstacles which, they say, make it impracticable at this stage.

- Shortage of teachers. There are not enough teachers for the schools that would have to be constructed.
- Lack of free textbooks. The Department has not yet reached the goal of supplying all Black pupils with free textbooks. Education cannot be made compulsory before it is completely free.
- Overcrowding at current enrollment levels. Double sessions must be eliminated and the pupil-teacher ratio, which is approximately 50 to 1, must be drastically reduced before enrollment can be increased.
- Need for parent education. To reduce the volume of truancy cases that would likely ensue from the introduction of compulsory education, parents must be educated and prepared for the changes which the system would bring.

The immediate objective of the Department is to introduce compulsory education in densely populated centers such as Soweto, Cape Town, and Port Elizabeth. These localities have almost enough classrooms to absorb all school-age children.

Preprimary education. The record of the Department in preprimary education has been extremely poor. Provision for nursery schools was made in the Education and Training Act of 1979, but the measure has not been implemented.

Many of the problems in primary, secondary, and tertiary education are traceable to the country's neglect of preprimary education. It is too late to demand equal opportunity in employment and equal pay for equal work and qualifications if preparation for employment has been unequal.

Consequently, there must be full equality of educational opportunities for all population groups from nursery school to university. This means the fight for equality must be fought and won at the preprimary level and at the lower primary level if we hope to win it at the upper levels.

Primary education. Primary school education for the Black children who are in school (less than 60 percent in the first years, far less after that) has many weaknesses. The poor quality of school buildings, compared to those for Whites, provides physical evidence that Black education has inferior status. Many buildings were erected mainly at the initiative of the local Black community, the Department contributing only half the cost.

Recently, the Cabinet has approved in principle an item in the Department's budget covering the total cost of community schools in Black townships. This would remove the financial burden borne by the communities until now. Providing sufficient classroom accommodation for the needs of the Black community will take some time, however.

Double sessions and large class sizes—two results of the past construction policy—constitute two of the main causes of the poor quality of Black education. The architects of Bantu education (as Black education was officially called until quite recently) introduced double sessions to make education available to as many Black children as possible and at the same time avoid large beginners' classes. They gave one teacher, usually a female, the responsibility of teaching 100 pupils each school day, in two three-hour sessions for 50 pupils each.

Clearly, one primary teacher cannot teach 100 pupils effectively. The Department now intends to eliminate double sessions, and 1.5 million rand has been appropriated for this purpose.

Language has presented one of the most difficult problems for Black pupils. They have to try to master two foreign languages, English and Afrikaans, in addition to their own mother tongues. The Government's introduction of the policy that Afrikaans be a medium of instruction was one of the causes of Black opposition to the Bantu

Education Act of 1954.

ATASA has maintained that the mother tongue should be the medium of instruction in the first four years of primary school, and that from then on through the highest level of education, English should be the vehicle of learning. The 1976 Soweto riots prodded the Department into accepting this policy.

Secondary education. Unequal facilities have a negative effect on Black students at the secondary level just as they do at the primary level. For example, a recent daily newspaper article compared facilities at a high school for Blacks in the South African city of East London with those of a high school for Whites that served a similar number of pupils. Here are the glaring inequalities the comparison revealed:

	Black school	*White school*
Classrooms	16	38
Laboratories	1	4
Music Rooms	0	4
Total teachers	27	46
Total teachers who are university graduates	9	35
Average class size	48	28

In addition, pupils at the Black high school must buy workbooks, exercise books, and notebooks, which the White pupils receive free. Similarly, the Black school has 1 overhead projector and 1 slide projector, whereas the White school has 15 overhead projectors, 6 tape recorders, and 2 film projectors. The White school has subsidized transport and a clinic with first aid facilities; the Black school has neither.

These conditions at the Black high school are typical of those at many high schools for Blacks in South Africa. To some extent they explain the high failure rate not only at Black high schools but also at universities.

Other policies of the national government have adversely affected secondary education for Blacks by their negative impact on Black faculty.

• Language policy has made recruitment of secondary school teachers extremely difficult. Many young Black university graduates resented the requirement—eliminated in 1976—that African teachers and pupils use both Afrikaans and English as media of instruction.

• The policy of local control of Black education by school boards established under the Bantu Education Act has been a sore point with young teachers who are university graduates. Some members of local school boards and school committees are semiliterate, yet until recently they had authority to appoint and dismiss teachers.

ATASA has fought vigorously against such authority. The policy was changed in the Education and Training Act of 1979, which provides that the powers to appoint, promote, and discharge teachers vest in the Minister of Education and Training.

• The policy of unequal pay for Black and White university graduates teaching in the same institutions, doing the same work, and holding the same qualifications has been objectionable to Black teachers. Until a few years ago, the authorities required that the salaries of White people be higher than those of Blacks. Recently, a change in principle has come about, and the Government has declared its intention to close the salary gap. Nonetheless, the rate at which the gap is being closed is slow and is itself a cause of dissatisfaction.

The Government's per capita expenditure on Black education is one-tenth the expenditure on White education.

The Government claims that parity has been achieved at the top rungs of the ladder. As I indicated earlier, however, job discrimination occurs in promotions to these higher rungs. This practice has the overall effect of preventing Black teachers from reaching the more lucrative posts, where parity is said to exist.

The combined effect of these policies has been to make the teaching profession unattractive to Black university graduates. They prefer to go into commerce and industry or to emigrate to other countries. Secondary school principals have been compelled to hire underqualified teachers, and standards have declined in consequence. In fact, the Government will have to allow secondary schools to recruit teachers from abroad if the staffing situation is to improve. The presence of such expatriate teachers, who could not be subjected to discrimination, might be a means of breaking down discrimination against South African Blacks.

Students' militant opposition to Government policies is another serious problem for staff in Black secondary schools. Some faculty members are White, and students sometimes regard them as representatives of White autocracy and agents of oppression. Yet they need these White teachers to help them acquire a good education.

Many high school problems have their origin in the students' ambivalent attitude toward their school. On the one hand, they value it because it equips them for life; on the other, they reject it because it is planned and controlled by an administration whose declared policy is discrimination against, and therefore oppression of, Black people. A great deal of the irresponsible conduct and violence that mark student disturbances is due not to the normal rebelliousness of youth, but to a spirit of revolt against the economic, social, and political structure of the country.

I believe that all is not yet lost. Both Blacks and Whites who have the best interests of South Africa at heart are searching for a fair and just dispensation to save the country from the holocaust that is certain to come if discrimination is not outlawed within the next few years. I believe also that, in spite of the Soweto tragedy of 1976 and the continuing impatience of Black people with Government policies, the democratic spirit that one senses in the Government will triumph over reactionary forces and launch the country on the road to justice, peace, and prosperity. □

Learning Through the Arts

I was rather apprehensive that morning last fall as I walked past the gym and glanced at the slim, muscular figure in tights and red football jersey lumbering up at the portable barre. Our custodian, who was removing chairs from the gym floor, also appeared distinctly uncomfortable as he eyed this stranger.

Matt Degnan, hometown boy, now principal dancer of the Connecticut Ballet Company, was preparing for the first of several dance workshops he would present to initiate Project AIM (Arts in Motion)—the arts-in-education program at Lincoln Elementary School. This occasion was the realization of a dream I had had for many years. And now, as the morning bell rang, I felt angry with myself for wishing we had planned a "safer" beginning.

"A boy ballet dancer!" Fourth graders Peter and Juan had clutched each other in mock horror when I announced the program for the first workshop.

Perhaps a puppet show or a folk dance group or even a string quartet would have been a safer start to our arts-in-education program. We would soon find out.

Like other arts-in-education programs throughout the country, Project AIM seeks to vitalize learning through the infusion of dance, drama, music, and the visual arts into all areas of the curriculum. It recognizes the special ability of the arts to create interest and involvement in learning.

Unlike many similar programs, however, AIM—a unique educational endeavor in only one school—is not part of a district-wide plan. Moreover, it was not designed by curriculum specialists but by the teachers and principal of Lincoln Elementary School. AIM, furthermore, does not receive federal or state funding. It is funded by parents who share a common belief that an arts-in-education program is important for their children. Last year, for example, our PTA raised $2,500 for the 20 arts events planned for the 1979-80 school year.

How did Project AIM begin? Fellow teacher Greg Naudascher and I were in the school lounge recovering from a fifth and sixth grade field trip to the King Tut exhibit at the New York Metropolitan Museum of Art. This trip was the culmination of our interdisciplinary study of Ancient Egypt, in which we used the arts as a vital resource for learning. Though exhausted, we were in a self-congratulatory mood. Aside from having to chase Nathaniel around the Temple of Dendur and a few anxious moments in the gift shop during the ritual postcard frenzy, the day had been an unqualified success.

Two months of preparation had preceded this field trip. Students fashioned delicate replicas of the artifacts and treasures buried with the boy king and furnished a scale model of the tomb. They studied Egyptian myths and legends and covered one wall of our classroom with a large mural depicting the patterns of life in Ancient Egypt. They learned something of history, geography, anthropology; and they sharpened their reading, writing, speaking, and thinking skills while working on this arts project.

Commenting about the bus trip home, Greg said, "Do you realize the kids didn't even sing 'Hundred Bottles of Beer on the Wall'? The fifth grade boys spent the whole trip convincing Carlos that the mummy's curse was just movie stuff, and Erika and Jennifer talked about being archeologists when they grow up."

"This is education," I thought, "and it should happen this way for everybody all the time."

We shared our feelings with principal Tom Kartsotis, who had always supported our attempts to bring the arts into the classroom. We had discussed a schoolwide arts-in-education program on previous occasions because we believed that such a program would benefit Lincoln Elementary, a Title I school of 375 students. During this meeting, however, we actually began to plan a program.

First, we discussed developing a comprehensive program that would offer a range of arts experiences for all children. Next, we talked about in-service training for teachers to help them infuse the arts into, and relate them to, their subject areas. We also looked for ways to integrate community arts resources into the program.

These ideas were not new, but we wanted to adapt them to meet the specific needs and limitations of Lincoln Elementary School. We wanted to find solutions to our problems of staffing, scheduling, and financing.

Tom suggested we request funding from our board of education to get the project started. The board granted our request, and we were off and running—more or less!

First, we established an arts team of interested teachers; art specialists; the principal; and Joe McCarthy, the arts program advisor of the Pennsylvania Department of Education. Together, we brainstormed ideas and then wrote a program development guide to promote the arts.

Next, we met with community arts groups—representatives from the museum, the dance forum, the arts council, local musical societies, professional and community theater groups, and college arts departments. We explained our plans to infuse the arts throughout the curriculum and enlisted their support.

In this way we not only gained the invaluable support of the community arts groups but also made a number of contacts with area dancers, actors, musicians, artists, writers, and poets. They eventually became part of our visiting artist series and provided in-service activities for our teachers.

Barbara Kilpatrick, education coordinator of the Allentown Art Museum, helped us initiate two important aspects of our program: museum-related studies and an arts internship.

Through museum-related studies, specific museum exhibits provide the basis for schoolwide interdisciplinary learning. For example, when the museum had its exhibit "Aspects of Ancient Greece," Barbara gave our staff orientation sessions about the exhibit

By MADELEINE RAMSEY
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and wrote a basic study guide from which teachers could design individual units about Ancient Greece. Language arts teachers taught Greek mythology; social studies teachers related classroom activities to the history of Ancient Greece; science and math teachers discussed the contributions of Pythagoras and Hippocrates; and the physical education teacher focused her instruction on the ancient Olympic games. This in-depth encounter with another civilization had a powerful impact on students.

The arts internship aspect of our program—also initiated by Barbara Kilpatrick—attracts art education students from area colleges who elect to practice teach at Lincoln Elementary. While working under the direct supervision of an arts teacher, the intern assists a number of classroom teachers by gathering resources, planning lessons, and supervising activities using one or more art forms.

This internship program has a double advantage. The art student gains a comprehensive understanding of the emerging role of the art specialist in the elementary school—a role which involves cooperation and teamwork with the classroom teacher. In addition, the program offers invaluable assistance to individual teachers at Lincoln Elementary who otherwise might not have the time or the experience necessary to develop art activities that relate to their subject areas.

In addition to the museum-related studies and arts internship program, Lincoln Elementary enjoyed a wide variety of arts events during the 1979-80 school year.

- College and professional productions of *A Midsummer Night's Dream, The Diary of Anne Frank*, and *Beauty and the Beast* exposed the children to the art of theater.
- A series of dance workshops introduced the basics of ballet and modern dance.
- Local artisans practiced their crafts in the school lobby.

Watching puppeteers and listening to a flutist, folksingers, and a jazz ensemble were all events that gave children new and rich sources of joy and enlightenment.

One of our biggest arts events was a holiday production called *A Christmas Mumming*, a happy, cooperative venture between school and community. Children performed *The Play of Prince George*, a medieval dramatization of the legendary encounter between Prince George and the dragon. Assisted by a corps of parents and teachers, the students had built the set, hung and focused lights, and fashioned the dragon's costume—a fantastic creation of teeth, scales, and an eight-foot tail. Two area musical groups—the Renaissance Consort and the Singing Boys of Pennsylvania, both specializing in period music—accompanied the production.

When the curtain went up on our production, it revealed the students' creation of a village square in Medieval England. Acrobats, jugglers, and clowns attracted a crowd with their festive merrymaking; a procession of monks garbed in scarlet and white sang in Latin under stained glass windows; a band of vagabond performers led by Father Christmas presented an animated interpretation of a favorite medieval folk drama—all accompanied by the quaint and lively sounds of a band of strolling musicians. Children and community artists had successfully brought to life a world of long ago.

Flexibility among Lincoln Elementary teachers makes it possible for the arts to relate organically to the life of our school. In addition to music and art classes, children attend weekly creative drama classes. A daily "special projects" period releases two teachers to work with selected children in curriculum-related art activities. (The number of participants involved, their grade level, and length of involvement are determined by the nature of the activity.)

Field trips to the ballet, the theater, and the museum are considered integral to the program. Teachers cooperate with each other when specific groupings are necessary to accomplish educational goals, and no one minds when a week's schedule is altered to accommodate the workshops of a visiting artist.

The optimum use of teacher talents provides Lincoln Elementary with a vital mixture of energy and imagination. A math teacher capable of leading a recorder group, a language arts teacher with community theater experience, and a librarian with a background in photography all enrich the fabric of education at Lincoln Elementary School.

Informing parents of current activities is another vital component of Project AIM. *ARTicles*—Lincoln Elementary's arts newsletter, which is written by students and teachers and printed four times a year—not only describes project happenings, but also provides a showcase for students' writing and artwork.

Our philosophy and unique programming will soon be shared through an 8mm color film produced, written, and narrated by students and directed by a professional filmmaker, Mario Acerra. The film will show the wide range of art experiences available to children at Lincoln Elementary and ways in which the arts enhance learning in all areas.

Admittedly, Project AIM is an imperfect enterprise. We have partially achieved our goals, but we still have much to accomplish. We need to design an evaluation instrument, a resource guide, and a systematic plan for staff development. We need time to develop curriculum guidelines and, of course, to raise additional funding for resource materials.

Yet, this past school year was an invigorating one for all of us. We prepared a week-long festival to celebrate our accomplishments throughout the year—an Imagination Celebration. The halls—a profusion of colors and shapes—displayed children's creative writing and art projects. The school band and chorus gave a concert in the gym, and parents attended special presentations of choral reading, puppetry, and crafts. At the end of the week, we gathered outdoors for a street theater production of Aesop's fables. A jazz band played as children painted the sky with 1,500 helium-filled balloons—a glorious finale for an exciting and productive year.

And what about Peter and Juan who were so horrified at the prospect of having "a boy dancer" give our first arts workshop? Well, they attended Matt Degnan's ballet workshop and loved it. In fact, Peter recently wrote: "Sports are still my favorite thing, but the arts are running a close second." □

Now that's saying something.

THE GRAND PROFESSION REMEMBERED

If I had my teaching career to live over, would I do the same things again? Well . . . yes and no, with a heavy emphasis on the latter. For the benefit of those just embarking upon the Grand Profession, let me set down some of the things I would take special care to avoid repeating.

First of all, I would never, but never, attempt to break up a water-pistol fight—especially if the ammunition is grape juice and the suit I happen to be wearing is a new Brooks Brothers. I recall an occasion when the suit I was wearing was light tan and the grape juice was, of course, purple. The combination rendered me gun-shy forever afterward.

Nor would I ever again admonish a bubble-gum aficionado from other than a safe distance. I once spotted a youngster in my class inflating a globule of massive proportions. I had visions of it absorbing the entire class, and I hastened to his desk to apprehend him. The ensuing explosion almost ripped off my necktie.

And I certainly would place a limit on the number of parties in my classes. Oh, a Halloween party and a Thanksgiving party, perhaps, but that would be the extent of it.

In my early years as a teacher, before I became case-hardened, I would permit class parties at the slightest urging. Before I had a chance to nod, my students were ripping open the bags of pretzels and potato chips.

One semester we averaged a party a week. We started off with a belated Labor Day party, a Columbus Day party, and a Halloween party. My students considered every conceivable holiday as cause for a festive occasion.

The custom came to an abrupt halt when I drew a rebuke from my principal who walked in unannounced on a class party in celebration of Groundhog Day.

I would also check out birthdays with greater care. It was the custom in my classes to commemorate each student's birthday with the traditional singing of "Happy Birthday."

One year I had a lively young miss named Margaret Birney in my class. She apparently had a fonder regard for music than for literature. Whenever I became deeply involved in the symbolism behind a particular novel or the imagery contained in a certain poem, up would go Margaret's hand.

"You have a question, Margaret?"

"It's Debbie Adler's birthday. She's seventeen."

"Didn't Debbie have something last October?"

"She was sixteen-and-a-half last October. I think we should all sing 'Happy Birthday' to Debbie."

"May we hold off until we complete this paragraph?"

"But it's important. And the bell will ring soon."

All discussion would cease forthwith until we attended to the choral tribute.

Although I failed to keep an accurate count, I suspect that a number of students celebrated at least three birthdays that year. In retrospect, I realize that those youngsters grew old long before their time.

And oh, yes, I would exercise more restraint during candy drives for whatever causes. I recall too well that hectic year when the sale of candy bars subsidized the purchase of an electric scoreboard for the gym and a jukebox for the cafeteria.

I was an easy mark in those days. I succumbed readily to winsome young maidens hawking calorie-laden chocolate bars for the benefit of the school. I gained 18 pounds that year and declared a moratorium on all sweets when I noted one morning that my feet remained dry while I was taking a shower.

A significant factor in a teacher's professional longevity is the location of the classroom. Given an option, I would request that my room not face a softball field. Trying to infuse youngsters with poetic spirit on a May day with the balmy breezes blowing and the sound and fury of a close ball game wafting in the open windows can be a frustrating experience. When Erato and Abner Doubleday become locked in an antiphonal struggle, the session may go something like this:

"When in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes,"

"Pitch it over. He's a cream-puff . . . ."

"I all alone beweep my outcast state,"

"He can't hit the side of a barn . . . ."

"And trouble deaf heaven with my bootless cries,"

"I got it! I got it!"

"And look upon myself and curse my fate,"

"Hey, Butterfingers, catch the ball . . . ."

"Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,"

"Who does he think he is? Willie Mays?"

Erato struggles bravely against the awesome forces of Doubleday but soon wilts under the pressure. A home run with the bases loaded catapults the entire class to the open windows, and the sonnet goes unfinished.

Finally, I wouldn't be quite so obsessed with maintaining an exemplary attendance record. In my halcyon days, neither snow nor sleet nor flood nor scheduled rock concert in the auditorium stayed this warrior from his appointed task. My determination to show up for work, even in the face of illness and adverse circumstance, earned me the respect of my colleagues and the admiration of the administration. I won the Hardy Award for 25 years of perfect attendance, and on my retirement the board of education gave me a special commendation plus a year's free membership in the Y.M.C.A.

On the other hand, it earned me a rather dubious distinction. I am the only teacher in the history of Eastchester High School ever to receive a get-sick card from a student. □

By STEVE BRODY
Retired Teacher,
Clearwater, Florida.

The Student with ASTHMA

Second in a Series on Chronic Health Problems of Students

Even children with asthma can run relay races, as shown here by patients at the National Jewish Hospital/National Asthma Center in Denver.

There are an estimated 9 million people with asthma in this country; 2 to 3 million are children—some of whom may be in your classroom. According to the National Institutes of Health, asthma leads all chronic illnesses in causing school absenteeism; millions of school days a year are lost to asthma. This noncontagious illness can strike at any age.

For asthmatic students, time lost from school can result in poor grades, poor retention of learning, a desire to drop out of school permanently ("I'm so far behind now that I'll never catch up"), or a feeling of not belonging to the circle of normal peers ("They never pick me for the team; they know I have asthma").

With the passage of PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, public schools now must provide education to handicapped or chronically ill students—including those with asthma—in the least restrictive environment.

What is asthma? Abnormal physical changes in the lung characterize the illness, but no one knows exactly what causes these changes to occur.

Apparently, one or more "triggers" cause tight contraction of the bronchial muscles (often called *bronchospasm*). The contractions narrow the diameter of the airways into the lungs and restrict air flow. To make matters worse, the lining of the airways becomes swollen and inflamed, and glands produce excessive amounts of a very sticky mucus that is difficult to cough out. Both the swelling and the plugs of mucus in the airways further obstruct air flow.

Thousands of children may have undiagnosed asthma, so teachers and school nurses should be aware of symptoms that indicate the presence of the illness. Coughing, especially after exercise, for example, may be a symptom

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of asthma. Children who do this may be ridiculed for being out of shape or for faking.

If a child exhibits a pattern of such coughing, a school representative should contact the parents to suggest a medical referral. Such easily recognized asthma is often overlooked, especially when children are very young and are thought to have bronchitis.

Asthmatic children should have Individualized Education Programs (IEP's) if they are categorized as handicapped under the provisions of PL 94-142. Whether they have IEP's or not, however, the school administration should immediately notify every teacher and nurse associated with a child when that child is diagnosed as asthmatic. At the time of diagnosis, it is essential, too, that the asthmatic student's parents, physician, classroom teacher, physical education instructor, and school nurse meet to discuss the child.

Staff at the National Jewish Hospital and Research Center/National Asthma Center (NJH/NAC) term such a meeting a "collective commitment" and believe participants should discuss—

- The type and frequency of the child's medications
- Possible behavior to expect from that particular child
- An appropriate reporting system to use if the child has an acute attack at school
- Written orders, if necessary, from the physician for medications the child may require during class or before exercise.

They should make their collective commitment to maintain open channels of communication about the child and his or her progress in school, medication changes, and problems.

Because asthma is a chronic illness, teachers should expect that asthmatic students will be taking medication regularly. Depending on the severity of their illness, some may need to take medication during class; others, perhaps only before exercise. It is helpful for teachers to pay close attention to the prescribed times for taking medications in case students need to be reminded.

Asthma medications can cause side effects that will affect children at school. Depending on the type of medication, children may experience tremors, drowsiness, or fatigue or they may have headaches or stomachaches. They may show over time a change in physical appearance, such as development of the moon face that is characteristic of long-term treatment with steroids. Some possible effects on behavior are apparent hyperactivity, memory deficits, and personality changes.

At the time they make their collective commitment, members of the group should identify specifically what family of medicines is being prescribed for the child and become generally acquainted with what side effects it may produce (see the box on medications). Side effects may become more pronounced from time to time. The teacher should simply note the change and report it to the school nurse or the child's physician for follow-up.

The other students in class will be aware of asthmatics' medications. They may express curiosity or exert harmful peer pressure by calling the child a "junkie." Teachers should explain to the class that a physician has prescribed the medication to permit the youngster to work and play normally. Such medication, they can explain, may mean the difference between the asthmatic student's being able to stay in school and learn or having to stay out and fall behind. Or a teacher might explain that just as people who get colds or flu need temporary medication, so asthmatics, who have a cold-like condition all the time, need medication all the time. Finally, health teachers might discuss chronic illnesses, using asthma as one example.

Once teachers and students understand and accept the illness, everyone will experience less fear or confusion about the asthmatic's special needs. As a result, asthmatic students will feel more accepted by their peers and will improve their psychosocial skills.

How can a teacher recognize an asthma attack in a student? Prominent symptoms include the following:

- Wheezing
- Complaints of tightness in the chest
- Coughing (sometimes more common than wheezing)
- "Rattling" in the chest
- Perspiration on the face or brow
- Hunched shoulders, giving the appearance that the head is pushed in and down
- An uncomfortable look on the face
- Labored breathing, sometimes with flared nostrils.

The rattling or wheezing in the chest of an asthma victim is often audible, even at a distance. If the sounds are not easily audible, a teacher or school nurse can usually feel the vibrations on the child's chest or can detect them by placing an ear on the child's back or chest.

The whistling or wheezing is the sound of air being forced through constricted airways. When the asthma attack is severe, the tubes close even more, and an observer may be unable to detect any breathing sounds at all.

In the most severe cases, gums and fingernails turn blue from the lack of oxygen. This is clearly an emergency, and medical help should be called immediately. Asthmatics not only faint, but on rare occasions die, from lack of air.

School staff can handle most asthma attacks without sending the child home if they follow a few procedures developed by staff here at NJH/NAC. Of course, we recommend that school staff check with students' physicians during collective commitment meetings for their concurrence with the following procedures.

First, last, and always, of course, teachers should not panic. The more panic a teacher shows, the more panic a child is going to feel and the more severe an attack can become. Both the teacher and the asthmatic student should try to relax. The teacher should try to focus the child's mind on something else and get him or her to use certain relaxation techniques.

The child can practice relaxed abdominal breathing exercises for at least five minutes. (Children may have their own exercises to do, or teachers can learn some from a therapist, nurse, or physician.) If the child feels that the technique is helping, he or she can continue it for another five minutes. Such exercises can help asthmatics make better use of their lung capacity and give them a sense of control during respiratory distress.

Warm liquids, such as water, tea, or

Asthma begins in the lungs, not in the head. No amount of emotional stress will cause asthma unless a child already has the abnormal lungs characteristic of the disease.

broth, tend to relax the bronchial muscles. The child should sit down and slowly drink one to three cups.

If these primary steps of exercise and warm liquids are ineffective in stopping the child's wheezing, medication is the next step. Though most chronically ill children have received specific instructions about use of their medications, they are still children and need close monitoring in accordance with the guidelines established in the collective commitment meeting.

When a child's condition has improved after an attack, he or she should return to class and resume normal activity.

What sets off an attack? The triggers vary from child to child because no two asthmatics are alike. Possible triggers include exercise, allergies and irritants, emotions, infection, and weather. Knowledge about the various triggers, with appropriate action, can sometimes prevent serious asthma attacks at school.

Exercise. Although it is a fallacy that asthmatics should not exercise, exercise is the most common trigger of asthma attacks. Exercise-induced asthma may take the obvious form of wheezing after exercise or simply coughing after any exertion. Some children are not aware of acute symptoms but know that they tire more easily than their friends. For most children, exercise must be prolonged for at least five minutes to trigger symptoms.

The use of medication can extend the child's exercise capacity. No one should assign additional physical activities, however, until the relevant medical and/or education professionals have analyzed the problem and the physician has prescribed an appropriate regimen to block exercise-induced asthma.

Warren Dennis, director of physical education at the Beaumont Center, the NJH/NAC state-accredited school, has been developing effective exercise programs for asthmatics for several years. "Asthmatic children generally have weak upper body structures from lack of use," says Dennis. He believes that the ideal exercise for asthmatics is swimming, which helps develop breath control, strengthens the upper body, and builds endurance. The NJH/NAC medical team and Dennis have observed that swimming causes less constriction of the bronchial muscles than other physical activities involving the same work load. Dennis recommends that the physical limits of asthmatics be constantly challenged to build a higher exercise tolerance.

Several years ago, the Committee on Handicaps of the American Academy of Pediatrics recommended that asthmatics regularly participate in physical education activities. Asthmatics, however, sometimes have problems in coordination and timing and shy away from sports. Often they lack confidence and feel that peers and coaches will find them inadequate. Structured physical activities can help asthmatics overcome many of these problems.

Dennis says that one of the major goals of physical education for asthmatics is teaching them to recognize the onset of an attack so they may determine when they should not participate. NJH/NAC has been successful in building this independence in its patients.

Handicapped children need lifetime activities to maintain fitness as much as other children, Dennis believes. For this reason, sports such as tennis, badminton, golf, volleyball, racquetball, handball, archery, jogging, hiking, and swimming should be in the asthmatic's physical education program. Lifetime sports participation, which is encouraged by PL 94-142, enhances self-image as well as social acceptance among peers.

Dennis encourages noncontact competitive sports for asthmatics. He recommends that the physical education instructor, coach, classroom teacher, and parents share a common philosophy with the child: For an asthmatic, winning does not necessarily mean coming in first place or having more points than the opposition. For an asthmatic, winning may simply be participating without wheezing.

Allergies and irritants. Some people have allergic reactions that affect their eyes and sinuses and result in hay fever. For some asthmatics, such reactions affect the lungs and result in asthma attacks.

When a child's allergies are known, it is worthwhile—possibly lifesaving—for the school nurse and/or teachers to keep a written record of those substances that cause his or her allergic reactions. Substances that set off allergies—whether they are inhaled, touched, or swallowed—are called allergens. Since foods can be allergens, asthmatics have to avoid eating or even coming into indirect contact with foods they are allergic to. Children can learn to identify known allergens in a cafeteria line, but they may not be aware of potential problems in home economics classes. Allergenic substances in foods being cooked can travel by air and cause problems for asthmatics, even though they don't eat the food.

In addition to foods, possible allergens include mold, pollens, and animal dander. Offenders in the classroom might include class pets, microscopic molds found in plants and fish tanks.

…e, dust, dried flower arrangements, …y leaves, and airborne pollens …ought in through an open window.

To help an allergic child, a teacher …ay have to remove furry animals …om the classroom, isolate plants, or …k the child not to look into the turtle …nk. Teachers should make such …anges subtly, however, to avoid …awing negative attention to the asth…atic student as the cause of the …anges.

In addition to allergens, irritants—…ny of which may be airborne—can …se problems. A wide variety of sub…nces irritate the nose, throat, and …onchi. Cigarette smoke is one of the …ost common, but aerosol sprays and …rong odors of any type can be irri…nts. Air pollution in general is a …owing menace, and the role it plays …aggravating asthma is just beginning …be studied. Other offenders might …clude chalk dust, felt-tipped pens, …nted oils, or flour.

Depending on what triggers specific …dents' attacks, teachers can help the …thmatic child in the classroom by …ing such things as ventilating the …om well when using chemicals or …bstances with strong fumes; saving …ir favorite perfume or after-shave …ion for out-of-school events; and …king great care with aerosol prod…cts, whether glue for a project or hair …ray for themselves.

Emotions. Asthma is not a psycho…atic disease. "The disease begins in …e lungs, not in the head," says David …razek, M.D., a child psychiatrist at …JH/NAC. "However," he adds, …motions can definitely serve as a …gger in some asthmatics. But no …ount of emotional stress will cause …thma unless a child already has the …normal lungs that are characteristic …the disease."

Doctors know that stress contributes …heart attacks. It should not be sur…sing that emotions can contribute to …thmatic attacks, also. When people …e uptight, their muscles do indeed …ghten up. The bronchial muscles are …exception. For those with asthma, …e more constricted the bronchial …uscles become, the less air flows …rough the tubes and the more likely …thma attacks are to occur.

Attacks may be brought on by such …ents as the loss of a pet or a disciplin…y action or by such long-term psychological conditions as a desire for attention. Teachers should not, however, let fear of asthma attacks make them hesitate to discipline asthmatic children. Like other children, asthmatics need discipline and structure.

Once children realize that their teachers can deal with asthma attacks effectively and without panic, the severity of their attacks may decrease.

Infections. Most asthmatic children have greater difficulty with asthma when they have upper respiratory infections. The same viruses that attack nonasthmatic children also cause infection in asthmatic children. The asthmatic child's infection may seem to be more severe, however, because of the bronchial problems that underlie and accompany it.

Weather. No one type of climate or geographic location is good or bad for all asthmatic children. Some children wheeze more on rainy days, while others have difficulty in hot, dry weather. Cold winter days may be difficult for children who are sensitive to cold air but beneficial to those who have pollen allergy.

Researchers at NJH/NAC have found generally that for asthmatics exercising in cold weather is much worse than exercising in warm weather. Two useful techniques for asthmatics who exercise in cold weather are to breathe through the nose rather than the mouth and to cover the mouth with a scarf.

Asthma can be controlled, and generally it is not as life threatening as the symptoms make it appear. One should never downplay, however, the effect this disease can have on its victims. Human beings can exist only about four minutes without air. Breathing is the single most important bodily process, and any breathing obstruction causes immediate and dramatic responses in the victims.

Asthmatic children need people around them—teachers, physical education instructors, coaches, administrators, parents, and peers—who understand and accept their illness. The important people in their school lives should actively participate in developing the asthmatics' abilities to control their illness and to gain as many skills and as much learning as possible from their school program. □

Families of Asthma Medications

Theophylline

- Form of administration: oral
- Examples: Aminophyllin, Elixophyllin, Quibron, Theospan, Choledyl, Slo-Phyllin, Theodur
- Action: relaxes airways, making it easier to breathe; may take up to one hour to have effect
- Possible side effects: nausea, vomiting, loss of appetite, restlessness, irritability, agitation, headaches, trouble sleeping, personality changes.

Cromolyn

- Form of administration: inhalant
- Actions: can prevent exercise-induced bronchospasm and lessen response to other triggers, such as allergens
- Possible side effects: coughing or wheezing.

Adrenalin and Related Drugs

- Forms of administration and examples: oral (Metaprel, Alupent, Terbutaline); inhalant (Isuprel, Metaprel, Alupent, Bronkosol); injection (Epinephrine or Adrenalin)
- Action: relaxes airways, used to treat exercise-induced bronchospasm; acts rapidly
- Possible side effects: fast heartbeat, pounding in chest, nervousness, tremors, nausea, vomiting, restlessness, headache, personality changes.

Steroid

- Forms of administration and examples: oral (Prednisone) or inhalant (Vanceril)
- Action: decreases inflammation; used only in most severe cases
- Possible side effects: learning problems, decreased memory, changed appearance (such as a moon face), increased appetite, gain in weight, growth problems, adrenal suppression, abnormal hair growth, dental caries, brittle bones, menstrual irregularities.

Antihistamine

- Form: oral (many trade names)
- Actions: relieves nasal/sinus congestion, sneezing, itching eyes, runny nose, etc.
- Possible side effects: drowsiness or excitability.

For further information on asthma, write for the booklet *Your Child & Asthma*, available for 50¢ from the Dept. of Communications, National Jewish Hospital/National Asthma Center, 3800 E. Colfax Ave., Denver, CO 80206.

How to Live With Your Teenager

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and Eleanor M. Saris, M.Ed.

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 18

The NEA Pushes for Equity in Social Security Benefits

It is time to face the reality of the 1980's. The Social Security system is at a crossroads. It has reached middle age—it is having a mid-life crisis. The reality is that the poorest person in our country is an elderly female 65 years of age or older. The reality is that the median income for an elderly woman is $2,800 per year. The reality is that the Social Security system affects 95 of 100 Americans. . . . The reality is that it is no longer a question of whether the Social Security system cheats American women; it is a fact! The reality is that there should be no more important domestic issue facing this Administration and Congress than discrimination against women in the Social Security system.

—**Rep. Mary Rose Oakar** *(D-Ohio), member, Select Committee on Aging, U.S. House of Representatives.*

The treatment of women under the Social Security system has been a major political and legislative issue for more than a decade. After some years of discussion, the Social Security Amendments of 1977 (Public Law 95-216) directed the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to conduct a two-year study of the problem and report its recommendations to Congress. Concurrently, the Advisory Council on Social Security appointed by the President began a study of women's issues and the House Select Committee on Aging began a lengthy series of hearings on the topic.

Their findings were basically identical—that since the inception of Social Security in 1935, American society has changed, and the system has not been adapted to reflect these changes.

Social Security was designed to serve the society of the early 1930's. It was based on four assumptions: that women are usually homemakers, that men provide income for the family, that housework a wife performs has no economic value, and that marriages last for life.

In 1975, the NEA Representative Assembly noted that these assumptions were no longer valid and directed the Association to lobby for the passage of legislation that would ensure equity for men and women in Social Security benefits. Since that time, NEA has monitored the activities of study groups on Social Security and testified on the specific concerns of teachers before Congressional committees and task forces mandated by Congress.

Since enactment of the 1977 legislation, probing of the various study groups has revealed a staggering range of inequities in Social Security. Following are some of the problem areas universally recognized as needing remedial action by Congress.

1. The Social Security system is designed to partially replace income lost upon retirement, disability, or death. Yet the system often violates that principle in the case of two-earner families, because it considers only the income of the major wage earner instead of treating the family as an economic unit.

2. If a female spouse earns 40 quarters of coverage as a worker, she is entitled to benefits based on her work record. If, however, the amount she would receive as a dependent is greater than the amount she has earned herself, she will receive only the greater amount. She will not receive the benefit she earned and paid tax on.

3. A widow will receive full benefits from her husband's earnings only when she reaches age 65.

4. The program was designed to provide a floor of benefits which pension plans and annuities would supplement. But Congress voted in 1977 that the old-age spouse's benefit a person receives will be reduced dollar-for-dollar by the amount of any federal, state, or local pension which that person receives based on his or her own government employment not covered by Social Security. No such pension offset applies to individuals who worked in the private or nonprofit sector.

5. A divorced person has no Social Security protection based on a marriage if it lasted less than 10 years.

6. A divorced mother is ineligible for dependent's benefits during the early child-raising years.

7. A homemaker who becomes disabled is not entitled to benefits even though she may be unable to perform her job.

8. A woman is not entitled to disability benefits if she has been out of the work force for more than five years before becoming disabled.

9. The system does not provide benefits for widows or widowers under age 50.

10. Significant disparities arise between married and unmarried women workers. Married women workers frequently spend time out of the paid labor force (or work part time) to perform homemaking or childcare activities, and when they work for pay, they generally earn substantially less money than men. The result is low Social Security benefits for this increasingly large segment of the work force.

Although the Ninety-Sixth Congress has held extensive hearings on women's issues in Social Security, its major activity affecting Social Security has been focused on shoring up the system's financial base—mainly by allowing the transfer of surpluses from one trust fund to another. The next major step in resolving inequities is expected to occur in an omnibus reform package due for consideration in 1981-82. The Ninety-Seventh Congress will consider findings of the study groups and Congressional committees, along with testimony from current and projected public hearings in the District of Columbia and throughout the country.

It appears likely that Congress will debate two major options when it addresses inequities in the benefit structure: (1) an *earnings sharing* plan, under which 50 percent of the total annual earnings of a couple would be credited to each spouse's individual earnings record, and (2) a *double-decker* plan, providing a flat-dollar benefit available to everyone plus an earnings-related benefit payable on the basis of earnings from employment covered by Social Security.

These broad-based remedies are complex, controversial, and difficult to assess in terms of future funding needs. The Social Security Administration estimates that the long-range (75-year) cost of the earnings-sharing option comes very close to approximat-

(Continued on page 70)

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Social Security
(continued)

ing long-range costs under current law. The long-range costs of the double-decker plan are highly dependent on how the benefits are adjusted to keep pace with rising wages or prices. In either case, a substantial portion of current law would have to be rewritten in order to accommodate the demands of major changes in the philosophical basis of Social Security, to close gaps in coverage for certain groups, and to ensure that adequate benefit levels are maintained without steep escalation of the tax rates that finance them.

The accompanying box gives the current NEA resolution on Social Security. The Association will continue its study and appraisal of Social Security in relation to new developments in teacher retirement plans.

—**David H. Foerster,** *NEA Government Relations.*

NEA Resolution on Social Security

The National Education Association believes that Social Security should be available to eligible teachers where desired, but shall not be mandated. Contracts with Social Security should provide for supplementary plans rather than integrated or coordinated plans.

The Association also believes that teachers who are presently covered under Social Security should strive to remain in the program. It insists on a referendum that would require a majority of affirmative votes of those eligible to vote before a governmental agency files notice to withdraw from the program. If the employee organization votes against withdrawal, cooperative educational and legislative campaigns to forestall withdrawal should be organized and coordinated with other public employee groups.

The Association urges the reform of Social Security laws to eliminate offset provisions that are discriminatory and discrimination based on sex, marital status, or time of retirement and to reduce the retirement age. No benefit promised or no benefit for which money has been collected should be withdrawn without adequate replacement.

The Association further believes that Social Security retirement and survivor benefits should be based upon the Social Security program and Social Security taxes. Health and disability programs should be removed from the Social Security program and financed from general tax revenues.

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Business Education Index. Edited by Rosemarie McCauley. Lists business education articles, research studies, and textbooks compiled from a selected list of periodicals, publishers, and yearbooks published in 1979. 1980. 126 pp. $8. Ellis J. Jones, Executive Secretary, Delta Pi Epsilon, Gustavus College, St. Peter, MN 56082.

The following publications are available from Gregg Div., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

Business English/30. Colleen B. Kish. Reviews principles of English grammar, punctuation, and style that students must know for effective business writing. Includes review quizzes after each chapter. 1980. 208 pp. $6.60.

Progressive Filing. Ninth edition. Jeffrey R. Stewart, Jr., Judith A. Scharle, and Gilbert Kahn. Discusses the major filing and records management competencies needed for employment in secretarial, stenographic, typing, accounting, word processing, or records management occupations. 1980. 136 pp. $9.04 (textbook); $8.48 (practice materials).

Graphs

Graph Paper from Your Copier. John S. Craver. Features 181 reproducible graphs, eight reproducible data collection and scheduling forms, and 15 reproducible geographical distribution maps. Includes introductory text that describes various kinds of graphs, discusses how to use them, and illustrates how to draw them. 1980. 232 pp. $12.95. HPBooks, P.O. Box 5367, Tucson, AZ 85703.

Language Arts

The following publications are available from the Natl. Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801. Designed to help English teachers, K-12, show students the value of English for all careers and to help students learn a variety of careers directly related to the study of English. Sketch a number of classroom activities for developing career awareness (grades K-6), explore the range of careers (grades 7-9), and discuss serious career preparation (grades 10-12).

Career Education and English, K-12: Ideas for Teaching. Edited by Jan E. Kilby. 1980. 101 pp. $4.75 (price for NCTE members); $6 (price for nonmembers).

Essays on Career Education and English, K-12. Edited by Marjorie M. Kaiser. 1980. 132 pp. $5 (price for NCTE members); $6.50 (price for nonmembers).

Making Reading Possible Through Effective Classroom Management. Edited by Diane Lapp. Gives ideas for effectively organizing classroom reading instruction. Covers classroom management at all instructional levels, offers views on effective planning and record keeping, and suggests a self-evaluation checklist for classroom reading teachers. 1980. 240 pp. $6 (price for IRA members); $9 (price for nonmembers). Intl. Reading Assn. (IRA), 800 Barksdale Rd., P.O. Box 8139, Newark, DE 19711.

Thematic Units in Teaching English and the Humanities. Second Supplement. Edited by Sylvia Spann and Mary Beth Culp. Offers direction and background material for teaching seven short units: "School Days," "Teaching Logic," "Nostalgia and the Interview," "Futurism: Framework and Composition," "Advertising Comes to School," "Politics in America," and "Voices for Justice." Designed to encourage students to explore ideas, practice decision making, analyze concepts, and clarify values. Junior high through junior college levels. 1980. 161 pp. $6.50 (price for NCTE members); $7 (price for nonmembers). Natl. Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1111 Kenyon Rd., Urbana, IL 61801.

Metrics

Metric Speakers Directory. Lists individuals who are able to give detailed and technical information on metric usage and provide a general introduction to the metric system and its use. Includes directory of organizations from which additional information—pro and con—can be obtained. 1980. Free. 43 pp. U.S. Metric Board, 1815 N. Lynn St., Arlington, VA 22209.

Sex Education

Schools and Parents—Partners in Sex Education. Sol Gordon and Irving R. Dickman. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 581. Discusses the status of sex education in the public schools and public and parental support for it. Describes specific school programs and the making of a good program. Includes a model curriculum (kindergarten through high school) that outlines topics and concepts for family-life education programs. 1980. 28 pp. 50¢ (quantity discounts available). Public Affairs Pamphlets, 381 Park Ave. So., New York 10016.

Special-Needs Students

Education Unlimited. Journal. Grace J. Warfield, editor. Designed for practitioners and administrators who work with handicapped, gifted, and talented students from early childhood through adult years. Presents articles relevant to improving educational experiences for special-needs students in the least restrictive environment. Five issues per year. Examination copy, $3; yearly subscription, $15 (individual subscription price); $20 (school, library, and agency price). *Education Unlimited*, Educational Resources Center, 1834 Meetinghouse Rd., Boothwyn, PA 19061.

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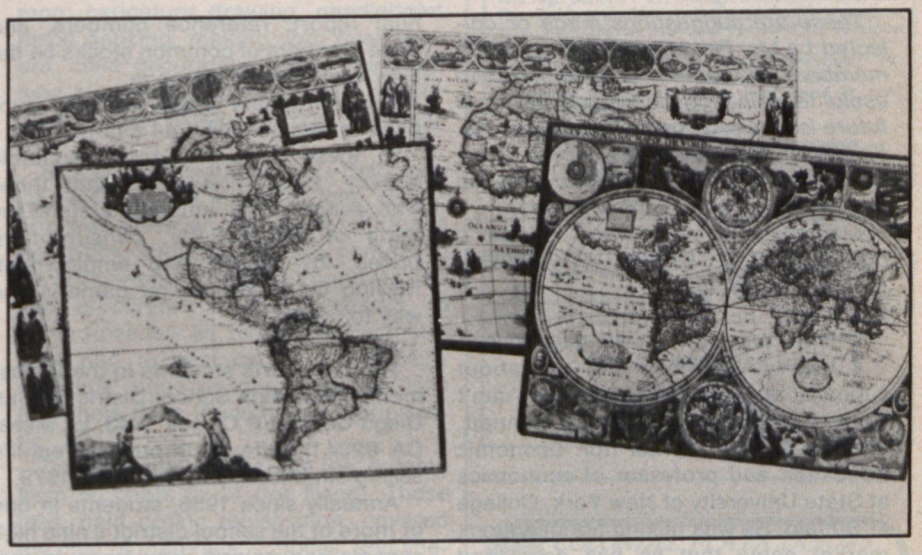

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Classroom Tips

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

"Three-quarters of our teams lose money. But they find out about capitalist economics in a way they can't forget." So says William B. Bennett, director of the Center for Economic Education and professor of economics at State University of New York, College at Buffalo. He was talking about a stock market game that he has developed that high school and college classes nationwide are playing. (In a recent statewide competition, Texas had 1,000 teams.)

To play the game, team members read the financial news, business magazines, and other sources of economic information. After due deliberation, they decide what stocks to "buy" or "sell" for their teams and send the details of these "transactions" to Bennett, who feeds them into a computer.

Bennett, with the help of his computer, sends each team a weekly report of the values of its stocks along with its ranking in the state competition. The team that makes the most money during a 10-week period wins.

New York schools are divided into five regions for this game. In each region, businesses donate money prizes. The statewide winner collects $250 and a trophy.

Although most teams lose, one young man's ersatz stocks climbed to a worth of more than $1 million because he had added together certain economic factors and decided that they meant Buy coal! Since then, he has invested real money in coal on the real stock market. He is making enough for his college expenses.

An instruction kit for the game costs $5. In addition to instructions, it includes transaction cards, a sample annual report, reference numbers, and code numbers of common stocks on the New York Stock Exchange.

Supplementary materials are supplied to teachers without charge.

In these days of erratic economic activity, Bennett suggests that those who would survive must understand the facts of productivity, consumption, prices, investment, and employment. Playing the stock market game is one way to begin.

Industrial arts students in the Grossmont Union High School District in San Diego County (P.O. Box 1043, La Mesa, CA 92041) suffered through a real-life selling situation in the spring of 1979.

Annually since 1958, students in one or more of the school district's nine high schools had gained experience in carpentry, electricity, and plumbing by actually building a house. During the early years of the house construction projects, the students built houses on school property on "I" beams, which made it possible to remove the houses later to buyers' sites. After 1975, however, students constructed houses on off-campus residential lots that the school district bought.

The director of the construction and training program, classroom teacher Calvin Bornholdt, is also a licensed homebuilding contractor. In addition, other professionals in the trades have been very generous in helping the student builders meet building codes and maintain high standards in general. Financial institutions have also helped, by granting interest-free loans for the projects.

Students designed the houses. After drawing the plans, they submitted them to members of the American Institute of Architects and the Building Contractors Association, who selected the ones to be built. The 1979 selection was a split-level, 162-square-meters house with three bedrooms, two-and-a-half baths, and a fireplace. Working in three-hour shifts, 45 students from three high schools did practically all the work, including buying and laying the carpeting.

The early homes sold for as little as $8,000 (not including the cost of land). Prospective buyers considered them prizes and stood in line to get them. For the 1979 house, however, inflated costs made it necessary for the school district to get a minimum of $89,950 in order to repay the bank loan. Prospective buyers were to place their bids at the monthly school board meeting, but two meetings came and went without a single bid. After a local newspaper published a short story about this surprising happening, however, the house sold at the next board meeting for $99,000.

Many students gained enough experience from these house construction projects to obtain jobs in the building trades immediately after finishing high school.

"The 1980 program was unique," says Bob Brady, principal of Santana High School, which serves as the center for the project. "The students built a combination student store and classroom building on the campus of Santana High, using funds from the school district and from their own Associated Student Body organization. At this site they will continue combining real-life experiences and schoolwork."

A very large puzzle is why schools do not give more attention to outstanding women of the past and present. Even the physicist Marie Curie is almost unknown to today's youngsters.

This gap was brought to the attention of Barbara Multerer, a reading teacher in the Buffalo (New York) Public Schools when she and her assistant, Hattie Griffin, planned a display for the entrance foyer of their elementary school. After deciding on "Famous American Women" as the subject, Ms. Multerer asked a class whom they wished to honor.

Right away someone suggested Betsy Ross. Then silence fell. Ms. Multerer urged the class to think of some others. Finally one child ventured, "Well, Ms. Multerer, there just aren't some."

The students began searching and soon found that history books and other sources mention repeatedly the same few famous American women: Molly Pitcher, Dolley Madison, Harriet Tubman, Susan B. Anthony, Helen Keller. The students themselves listed other "greats": Coretta King, Billie Jean King, Elizabeth Blackwell. They were happy to find Maria Tallchief and Buffy St. Marie to go with Pocahontas and Sacajawea.

Social studies classes could do worse than to track down some historic Ameri-

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

can women and their contributions to society. They can look through textbook indexes, for starters. How many women are listed there? Are any mentioned in connection with military action?

Students can also hunt up answers to some provocative questions: What did Harriet Beecher Stowe and Harriet Tubman have in common besides first names? What woman author was a crusader in the halls of Congress on behalf of the rights of American Indians? How many female Senators have we had? Governors? Members of the House of Representatives? Ambassadors? Who was the first American woman writer of note? Who wrote the words that appear on the Statue of Liberty, and what else did she do? What American women have won Nobel prizes? What American woman was the first to survive a plunge over Niagara Falls in a barrel?

Finally, students can list female editors, composers, painters, college presidents.

Ms. Multerer's project was successful and appreciated. Her next one will be to honor female leaders in her school's community, and there's a good idea, too.

The emphasis may still be on the basics, which to too many people means narrow academics. There is still, however, an exciting, wonderful world around us for youngsters to be prepared for, if only by occasional forays out to sample it.

For the last two years, Templeton Middle School in Sussex, Wisconsin, has arranged for such a sampling by setting up an elaborate Discovery Day.

On the chosen day (an alternate date was named in case of rain), and with much help from the community, the students abandoned their customary academic fare in favor of a menu of 150 mini-courses. Some of the courses lasted all day—golfing, hiking, canoeing, fishing, stamp collecting, outdoor cooking, nature study. Other courses lasted for only half a day—archery and hunter safety, crocheting for lefties, racquetball, quilting, macrame, bowling, biking, flying in an airplane, sketching at the zoo.

Among the hour-long courses (a majority) were those teaching the techniques of wet and dry fly fishing, cribbage, beginning stitchery, backgammon, caricature drawing, needlepoint, disco dancing, making corn husk flowers, cake decorating, yoga, "pirating" new plants from cuttings, hot air ballooning, sign language, and psychology.

Students registered for Discovery Day eight weeks ahead of time. Everyone was given an elaborate handbook describing the courses and containing parent permission slips. Organizers limited enrollment in many classes, in some to as few as 10 people. Each student had to sign up for a full day's schedule; none of this, "You can skip the whole thing if you're not enthusiastic" bit.

Some courses required a fee, ranging from 50 cents to $4 (for flying). These fees, paid during registration, covered the cost of materials, supplies, and special items. Chartering buses proved to be the largest single item of expense. Local civic groups covered it the first year; the sale of Templeton Discovery Day T-shirts, the second.

For further information about the successes and problems of exciting Discovery Day, write to Joan Vehlow or Nancy Leubke, both of whom were instrumental in making it happen, at Templeton Middle School, N59 W22490 Silver Spring Rd., Sussex, WI 53089.

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Books

Behind Closed Doors: Violence in the American Family by **Murray A. Straus, Richard J. Gelles,** and **Suzanne K. Steinmetz.** Anchor Press/Doubleday. 301 pp. $10.95.

In the 1970's, Americans awoke somewhat belatedly to the problem of domestic violence—belatedly because the carnage that occurs "behind closed doors" may very well equal or exceed the much more publicized violence that occurs in the streets. Authors Straus, Gelles, and Steinmetz are sociologists who, having examined the many aspects of domestic brutality in a number of publications over the past decade, are responsible in part for sounding the alarm on violence in the family.

In *Behind Closed Doors*, they seek to measure the extent of violence in the American family, to delineate the forms of violence and their meanings, and to examine underlying causes. This new contribution is important because it is based on a survey of a representative sample of the U.S. population. Too often research in this field is conducted using small unrepresentative samples of battered wives or abused children or incidents reported to the police. It is dangerous to draw conclusions about the total population from such research.

Using a standard sampling procedure, these researchers selected more than 2,000 families across the nation for interview. In each family (single-parent families were excluded), one adult was asked about the way conflict was resolved at home. Although the authors acknowledge the sensitivity of the subject matter and the existence of underreporting, their results suggest that many Americans are willing to talk about violence in the home.

The survey uncovers a veritable epidemic of domestic violence: an estimated 7.8 million cases of violence between spouses each year; 1 to 2 million cases of children being kicked, bitten, or punched by a parent; and 29 million incidents of violence between brothers and sisters!

The definition of violence is comprehensive—ranging from throwing things to pushing, grabbing, shoving, or slapping, to using a gun or knife. Some readers will take issue with the definition, agreeing with the respondents who considered many of these acts to be normal, everyday behavior. The authors regard all types of violence, however, as manifestations of the same problem, different only in degree. Even when they restrict their examination to incidents that are clearly abusive, the estimates are frighteningly large.

The authors maintain that violence is learned at home. In support of this proposition, they present findings that show that those who experience family violence as children are more likely to practice it in later life. In order to break this cycle of brutality, they say that the social norms that legitimize violence must be eliminated.

Teachers, who must deal in a variety of ways with the "fallout" from domestic disorders, will find that this volume enhances their understanding of the nature and dimensions of family brutality.

There are weaknesses in the analysis—some of which are acknowledged—and there may be a few too many facts and figures. But the book is informative and easy to read.

Reviewed by **Harold R. Lentzner,** *survey statistician, U.S. Bureau of the Census; co-author of* Intimate Victims: A Study of Violence Among Friends and Relatives.

Children's Secrets by **Thomas J. Cottle.** Anchor Press/Doubleday. 266 pp. $10.

Thomas Cottle describes five different mythical family norms in *Children's Secrets*: stability, harmony, affluence, being straight, and normalcy. For each norm, he presents two or more "life studies" of children from families where the norm is indeed a myth, and in which the children are expected to keep that fact secret to maintain a family image in accordance with the myth.

The effect of the secrets on the children can be damaging, however. A family that requires a child to keep a secret to save the family from some shame or disgrace can cause the child to take the shame upon himself. The construction and justification of a myth that maintenance of a lie requires may further damage the child's psyche.

Cottle is an immensely powerful and sensitive storyteller. His accounts are not for the squeamish, or for those of us who cling to the myth that broken homes and/or poverty cause all children's problems. The secrets described range from parental desertion to incest, from drug abuse to the mental breakdown of a father. This last caused a 16-year-old boy to run away from home and try to get himself committed to the same sanitarium as his father. Another study deals with a little girl's attempts to

over up the suicide of her father both to neighbors and friends as well as in her own mind.

Many times Cottle states that these cases should not be fitted into psychological theories. Sadly, this statement usually precedes a section of the book in which he seems to try to do just that, disjointedly. In such sections, his vocabulary, usually clear, becomes barely understandable—even with an unabridged dictionary.

His final chapter, however, makes up for this flaw. In it, he weaves all the psychological threads together to show the dangers of secrets, myths, and shame for all children.

Reviewed by **Charles L. Head,** *chemistry teacher, Hillcrest High School, Dallas. In an interview with* Today's Education *("Meet Charles Head," September-October 1979), Mr. Head described his work with students who have serious problems at home and school.*

He and She: How Children Develop Their Sex-Role Identity by **Jeanne Brooks-Gunn** and **Wendy Matthews.** Prentice-Hall. 338 pp. $12.95; paper, $6.95.

In *He and She*, the authors summarize and describe the research on the development of sex identity and sex roles. For each developmental period in a child's life, they describe the physiological differences between girls and boys; examine the kinds of sex roles expected and permitted for that age group; and, finally, explore the reactions and perceptions of girls and boys as they view themselves and the other sex.

The authors find that physiological differences between boys and girls do of course exist at birth, but that far more significant in developing sex roles are the actions of adults toward babies as they develop. The perceptions of many adults about differences between the sexes in strength, beauty, and reactions to stimuli are not founded in reality. Still, differing adult reactions to the same behavior exhibited by girls and boys have far-reaching effects on their development of sex roles.

The authors conclude that children identify with their own gender by age two or three and have very rigid notions of what are proper roles for women and men by the time they go to school. Still, with widening experiences and greater maturity, they show lessening resistance to nonstereotyped roles as they grow older. Here, the authors suggest, the school can play an important part. Active intervention can, for example, counteract the familiar "fear of success" that emerges in elementary school girls or the notion that develops among young boys that reading is a "girls' " activity.

Of the characteristics likely to affect school performance, the authors find evidence that one—spatial ability—may be "influenced by a sex-linked recessive gene, which males are more likely to express." This would mean simply that males would be more likely than females to be born with spatial ability. Most investigators who propound this hypothesis believe, however, that genetic factors can only partially explain sex differences in spatial ability. Some believe that socialization is also crucial. In fact, one investigator found that Eskimos, who are permitted "great independence and freedom" from sex-stereotyping as children, show no sex-related differences as adults in scores on tests of spatial ability.

After learning the routes by which children assimilate sex roles, the clever educator or parent can plan strategies to prevent the development of undesired, and certainly not innate, sex-stereotyped behaviors. In presenting so much evidence from research, Brooks-Gunn and Matthews have contributed greatly to the cause of sex-fair education.

Reviewed by **Margaret Zierdt,** *teacher, Montgomery County (Maryland) Schools; and member, NEA Women's Caucus.*

American Education: The National Experience, 1783-1876 by **Lawrence Cremin.** Harper and Row. 587 pp. $35.

In this second volume of a projected three-volume history of American education, Cremin traces the emergence of a distinctive American system during the early to middle nineteenth century. This system was indebted to several doctrines of eighteenth-century republican ideology:

- That the vitality of the Republic depended on education
- That proper republican education consisted of the diffusion of knowledge
- That schools and colleges were the best agencies to provide such education
- That some connection should exist between schools and the state.

The architects of the Republic cherished these ideas, but, as Cremin notes, on key points they were vague. No consensus existed, for example, about the kind of knowledge to be diffused. In addition, the principle of federalism worked against uniformity. Rapid physical expansion of the country encour-

(continued on page 78)

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Books

(continued)

aged experimentation, and the growth of religious sectarianism after 1800 guaranteed variety.

The result of these pressures was a system that diverged from the expectations of the founding fathers. Where they had envisioned an orderly pyramid of schools, the actual pattern was "infinite mixing." During the 1840's, for example, Lowell, Massachusetts, experimented with a system in which Roman Catholic parochial schools were reported as public schools.

One effect of this variety, Cremin argues, is that conflicts over public education were fought out between shifting coalitions. In different communities and at different times, merchants, workers, Catholics, Protestants, Whigs, and Democrats both supported and opposed public education. As a corollary, Cremin does not accept the view advanced by revisionist historians that public education was a middle- and upper-class imposition on the lower classes. The only groups that had schooling imposed on them were Indians and Blacks. For others, the rise of the public school was an outgrowth of pluralistic pressure groups rather than an imposition from the top down.

What distinguished American education was not only the flexibility of its system of public education, but the continued vitality of informal education at home and in the family. Throughout the period, students moved much more readily than now back and forth across the permeable boundaries of family, apprenticeship, and school. Cremin makes extensive use of autobiographies and biographies to illustrate the mixture of formal and informal influences on the experiences of nineteenth century Americans.

Cremin's book is judicious, well-written, and well-documented. It should appeal both to professional historians and to lay persons. The only thing it is not is cheap.

Reviewed by **Joseph F. Kett,** *professor of history, University of Virginia.*

Campus Shock: A Firsthand Report on College Life Today by **Lansing Lamont.** Dutton. 144 pp. $8.95.

The general theme of *Campus Shock* is that the universities and colleges of the 1970's were troubled, disrupted places. Much of the text is written in terms of the students, whom Lamont repeatedly describes in terms such as these that appear on page two of his book: "unhappy, beset by tension, trapped in insecurity and frustration." The chapter headings provide a catalog of problems that students confront: Crime at the Gates, Racial Distrust, Sexual Anarchy, Careerism, Grade Frenzy, The Cheating Game, Retrenchment's Angry Harvest.

The 675 interviews journalist Lamont conducted with students, faculty, parents, and administrators enable him to provide endless examples of the frustrations students face, the problems they create for themselves and each other, and their reactions to these problems. But with this wealth of detail available for illustration, the book is not a careful discussion of thoughts of the interviewees. Rather it is a jumble of almost unconnected assertions, judgments, and characterizations.

Few quotations from respondents are more than a sentence long. Many paragraphs are merely strings of quantitative notes on the dozen universities studied. The author seems to select quotations more for shock value than for illumination. He does not even lay out the statistical facts in a systematic or comparative fashion, and he presents all the material as equally startling. In many cases, Lamont makes no explicit judgments. The reader must infer his opinions from the style and tone of his writing.

Lamont's recommendations can be boiled down to—Let's all try harder and be better people. A good idea, but not one that enables us to understand or rectify the *systemic* causes of those awful problems besetting higher education.

Reviewed by **Sylvia Helen Forman,** *associate professor of anthropology, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.*

Legislated Learning: The Bureaucratization of the American Classroom by **Arthur E. Wise.** University of California Press. 212 pp. $10.95.

No teacher today has been spared the impact of federal and state mandates on a variety of school purposes and functions—from school integration to education of the disadvantaged and handicapped to competency testing. In both the education arena and elsewhere, at both state and federal levels, increased centralization of authority for decision making about a variety of human services seems unquestionably to be the trend.

No one should deny that some good has come from some of the programs that constitute this trend. Had decision-making bodies beyond local and state levels not taken the initiative, some localities might still be unresponsive to the needs of minorities, the poor, the elderly, the unemployed.

Still unresolved, however, is the question of how much state and federal intervention in local government, and for what purposes, serves the public best. This is the issue Arthur Wise has articulated thoughtfully and clearly with respect to education.

Wise points out that the "feds" and, to a lesser degree, state authorities have been so successful in legislating and otherwise (through administrative directives and the Courts) assuring equality of opportunity that they have come to assume it is possible to legislate productivity (quality) as well. He argues that this assumption is ill conceived, that "low productivity in the educational system generally cannot be solved by policy intervention."

Rather, he asserts, intervention results in what he labels hyperrationalization of the schools by higher levels of government. He defines *hyperrationalization* as increased bureaucratization through rules, procedures, and scientific management techniques that do not attain the intended policy objectives. Wise is critical of quantitative measurement generally and competency testing particularly. He makes a convincing case against federal and state centralization of authority to mandate the improvement of school quality.

In a final chapter on "Achieving Equitable and Productive Education," he offers no easy solutions, however. He warns, in fact, that "equity and productivity issues, now intertwined, will be hard to disentangle." Nonetheless, he describes and evaluates four alternatives to incremental bureaucratic centralization and discusses some others. If this book has one fault, it is the scanty discussion of the alternatives. Less than 10 pages are devoted to all of them.

Whatever its shortcomings, this is an important book. Those for whom policy centralization is the antidote for problems of learning and teaching in American schools should consider its postulates and admonitions.

For teachers it offers reassurance that expertise, professional judgment, and academic freedom are to be valued over the mandates of federal and state authority for bringing about school improvement.

Reviewed by **Bernard McKenna,** *NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*

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